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PRINCE ALFRED AND THE THRONE OF GREECE.

THERE seems to be no doubt that the Greeks have made up their minds to elect Prince Alfred to the vacant throne; and by this resolve of a free people, a cloud has been cast upon the spirits of pamphleteers and journalists, who weary Europe with the cry that Imperial France is the lonely hope of nationalities in the stormy hour of their regeneration. A jealous care of treaties and protocols has suddenly shot up in the worshippers of a man whose vaunted mission has been to read treaties with the sword; and a tender regard for the harmony of the Western Powers is now betrayed by *La France*. "It is evident," says that journal, "that if one of the Powers desired to obtain a preponderance to the prejudice of the others, the equilibrium of their relations would be disturbed, and a shock given to the principles upon which their good understanding rests." If it is any consolation to M. de la Guéronnière, we can assure him that we have not forgotten the sacrifices made by France, out of regard for the equilibrium of our relations, about the time of the annexation of Savoy and Nice; and a valuable lesson in the principles upon which our good understanding rests has very recently been taught us by the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, when he told the Italians that the earnest wish of the English people for the evacuation of Rome was a reason for prolonging the occupation. Should the Greeks continue steadfast in their purpose to nominate Prince Alfred for their sovereign, we know what we have to expect. The same journals which periodically publish telegrams of insurrections and massacres in the Ionian Islands, will be loud in their denunciations of "the intrigues of English agents;" and politicians, like M. St. Marc Girardin, who can see through a mill-stone, will solemnly warn the Greeks that the annexation of Greece to the Ionian Islands, and not the annexation of the Ionian Islands to Greece, will be the fruit of the election of an English Prince to the Greek throne. To every sane Englishman, who knows that the lust of territorial aggrandizement is utterly extinct in his countrymen, the idea of our adding Greece to the British empire must seem little better than the bugbear of an idiot; and yet we must look for a crop of such fancies on the other side of the Channel. England, however, does not take these sagacious politicians into her counsels, and they may be reminded that France is not the only Power which does not recede before menaces.

It is easy to understand the considerations which have weighed with the Greeks in their choice of Prince Alfred. At the present hour the Republican form of government finds but little favour, either with princes or peoples, in Europe; while the brilliant success of the Italian revolution, when led and guided by the Sardinian Government, has given fresh lustre to constitutional monarchy as an instrument of regeneration. And to no quarter could a young nation, seeking for a constitutional king at the outset of his new career, more naturally turn than to the reigning family of England; for here is the head of free institutions. If there is anywhere to be found a prince who might be expected to keep good

faith with his subjects and respect a coronation oath, surely it must be among the children of our Queen. But these, perhaps, are the least among the considerations which recommend Prince Alfred to the Greeks. Were he once seated on their throne, they would, no doubt, look for the incorporation of the Ionian Islands with the kingdom of Greece as the first-fruits of English sympathies, and greater boons than this would be expected to follow. To drive the Turks out of Europe, and to make Constantinople the metropolis of a Greek empire, is the *grande idée* of all the Greeks; but it must remain an idle dream, so long as England resolutely maintains the integrity of the Turkish dominions. If, on the other hand, the support of England were withdrawn from the Sultan, and given to the King of Greece, Christian worship might ere long be celebrated in the mosque of St. Sophia. And while Greece was thus extending her frontiers at the expense of Turkey, English capital would freely aid in the development of her resources. A world-wide trade would easily be reared by the commercial genius of her people; and the elements of maritime power would rapidly grow up with a large mercantile marine.

There is no denying that this is an attractive programme; but every picture has its reverse side. Prince Alfred is alien to the Greeks in race, language, and religion, and he is only eighteen years of age. His character and abilities are well spoken of, but so were those of Otho when he was an untried youth. The Greeks can hardly have forgotten the lessons of the early years of Otho's reign. When at the age of eighteen he came amongst them, their fondest hopes were built upon him, and they gave him such a welcome as a sovereign scarce ever received. Thirty years afterwards, discontent under his rule had become so universal, that he was quietly bowed out of his kingdom without a shot being fired in his defence. At a time when the Greeks needed the strong hand of a full-grown and resolute man to consolidate society after a revolution, they fell under the sway of a king, who was a minor, and a council of regency,—with what results they know too well. For this they were not themselves responsible; Otho was the choice of the protecting Powers. But now that they are their own masters, free to choose whom they like, will they again elect a mere boy? A strong hand is wanted now, as it was when Otho came to the throne. With these disadvantages within, the election of Prince Alfred would bring fresh troubles from without. France and Russia would forthwith turn coldly away from Greece, and the ill-fated country would become the prey of their ceaseless intrigues. Wherever a cause of justice and civilization needs support, France, as we have been told by the highest authority, is sure to be not far off; and after the ostentatious patronage of the Greeks by Russia, they can scarcely expect to put that Power in a good humour with them by unanimously choosing an English prince for their king. Playing the champion of the Greeks has been very useful to Russia as a means of thwarting and opposing England in the East; but as soon as that *locus standi* was cut from under her

feet, the Greeks would have an opportunity of testing the disinterestedness of Russian sympathies.

These, however, are matters which must be left to the consideration of the Greeks, and on which we may take them to be the best judges; but what immediately concerns us is the answer to the question in everybody's mouth. Supposing Prince Alfred to have no disinclination to accept the crown of Greece, will the English Government counsel him to do so? We incline to think that they will not; for, in the first place, we may expect protests against his election from the French and Russian Governments. It would, no doubt, be easy for Lord Russell to show that scruples about treaties do not sit very gracefully either on France or Russia; and we may make a shrewd guess that if the Duke of Leuchtenberg had been unanimously elected King of Greece, the ingenuity of Prince Gortschakoff would have found excellent reasons for overriding any number of protocols; but the decision of the English Cabinet should rest on loftier considerations than these. The nomination of Prince Alfred, if it be made abortive by the opposition of the other protecting Powers, will, at any rate, serve us this good turn,—that it will effectually silence the claims of the Duke of Leuchtenberg, and of every other prince who stands in a similar relation either to France or Russia; but this is not all that it would do for us. It would give us an opportunity for a proof of political virtue, which we should do well not to abuse. Let us by our deeds proclaim that, while the saintly apostles of Greek and Catholic Christianity are perpetually troubling the world with their aggressions on weak neighbours, we, the vulgar votaries of trade, recognize such things as honour and moderation among nations from one towards the other. Armed, as she is, to the teeth, England can afford to be just and generous too, without falling under a suspicion of craven fear; and withal she would grow in moral power. Supposing, however, that no opposition is made by the other protecting Powers to the election of Prince Alfred, all objections to it will not be removed. It would be positive cruelty to let him mount the throne of Greece without assuring him that the policy of England in the East shall undergo such modifications as will almost amount to a right-about-face. It is difficult to believe that Lord Palmerston is prepared to undo, at the eleventh hour, the work of his lifetime, and to give the signal for the advance of the Greeks into the Turkish dominions; but without this what would be the position of Prince Alfred as King of Greece? The murmurs of a people, cheated of their cherished hopes, would reverberate round his throne night and day. Hated by his subjects, and hampered by the jealousy of foreign Powers, he must lean wholly upon England; but what English statesman can contemplate with satisfaction a future with such liabilities in store for us?

Whosoever be the man that is eventually crowned at Athens, we earnestly hope that the first opportunity will be taken of transferring the Ionian Islands to his rule. Whenever this idea has been mooted, the invariable answer of Ministers has been, that we have contracted obligations with other Powers of Europe, as regards those islands, and that we cannot recede from those obligations. But the official reply, with the varnish off, only means that it is not thought safe to let Corfu go out of our own hands. No one doubts that the Powers which were parties to the treaty of 1815, would discharge us from our trust, if we desired it; and when the Ionian Assembly proposed to apply itself to the contracting Powers for their discharge, it was at once prorogued for acting seditiously. The circumstances which made the Protectorate necessary in 1815, no longer exist. At that time continental Greece formed part of the Sultan's dominions; but to an independent kingdom of Greece the Ionian Islands naturally belong by every consideration of geographical situation, race, language, and religion. Great doubts are now entertained of the value of Corfu as a military post; and even if it were much stronger than it is taken to be, it would be a poor compensation for the moral weakness to which the possession of it exposes us. Whenever Poles, Hungarians, or Venetians are oppressed, no English Minister can utter a word of remonstrance without having these pestilent islanders cast in his teeth. A more mean, lying, and mischievous pack of scoundrels than the Ionian demagogues, can hardly be found all the world over; and yet their seditious cries are for ever furnishing our enemies with a handle against us. They are a millstone round our necks. In the name of Heaven, then, let us be rid of them. The utmost that we can require, in abandoning the Protectorate, is securities against the possibility of the islands falling into the hands of France or Russia. As soon as Greece shall have made a fair start under her new king, and have given proofs of settled order and good government, let us hasten to extend her boundaries by the cession of the Ionian Islands. As a peace-loving people, whose era of military conquests is past and gone, it is our plain interest everywhere to strengthen the smaller kingdoms. Weak States, which are always ready to lean for support on one or other of the two great aggressive Powers, are the curse of Europe. A divided Italy, a divided Germany, and distracted empires of Austria and Turkey, are chief among the objects of Napoleon's policy; and the Emperor Nicholas, in 1853, told Sir Hamilton Seymour that what he would never permit was "any attempt at the reconstruction of the Byzantine empire, or such an extension of

Greece as would render her a powerful State." There spoke the instincts of an aggressor. What the late Czar would have striven with all his might to hinder, we must labour to promote by all fair means. A Greek kingdom, powerful enough to be independent of French or Russian support, will be one of the best securities for a satisfactory solution of the Eastern question in the fulness of time.

THE LATE MR. GIMLET.

AS Lord Llanover has haughtily announced his determination of withholding any explanation of his conduct in the Jones-Herbert squabble, until he is properly interrogated on the subject by a peer in the House of Lords, it is not unlikely that the matter will occasion a lively debate in the Commons as soon as Parliament meets. Meantime we beg to call the notice of our readers to a case bearing directly on the point at issue, which has just been dealt with in the Court of Queen's Bench, by a legal authority certainly not inferior to the great ex-Radical who has been well named by a witty contemporary, the Prefect of Monmouthshire.

On the 20th instant one John Henry Gimlet, an attorney, applied by counsel for a rule directing that his name might be changed and entered on the Rolls as John Henry Henry, and that the Master might endorse the alteration on the certificate of his admission.

The Lord Chief Justice, after a few good-natured and jocular remarks, ruled that as such a step had been permitted before it might be permitted again; and Mr. Gimlet will henceforward be professionally and socially known as Mr. Henry; unless indeed, as in the Jones-Herbert case, anybody having a spite against him should persist in addressing him as Gimlet; in which case he will have no redress, according to the Lord Chief Justice, but to have as little to say to the ill-conditioned fellow as he possibly can.

There is nothing disgraceful or degrading connected with the name of Gimlet. There are many names far more disagreeable to bear. We should infinitely prefer the name of Gimlet to that of Bugg, or its diminutive Buggin, or to Coward, or Bastard, or Scudds, or Shufflebottom, or to a hundred others which will readily occur to every one. It is not a common name, like Brown, Smith, Jones, or Robinson. Indeed, we never heard of it before; and we have no right to doubt that in some remote corner of England, Ireland, or Scotland it may be the time-honoured designation of a reputable race. Still, it cannot be denied that it is a name which nobody would willingly bear if he could help doing so; and under which it would be annoying and disadvantageous to fight the battle of social and public life. Lord Llanover himself, liberal as his opinions used to be before he attained the House of Lords, would certainly not allow a Gimlet to penetrate matrimonially into his family—no matter how eligible a *parti* the gentleman might be in all other respects save his name; nay, we have strong doubts whether he would even permit a butler or a groom of the chambers afflicted with that patronymic to retain office in his establishment, unless, indeed, he could contrive to obtain from his friends at the Home Office a Royal Licence, authorizing the fortunate menial to assume the name of Mowbray or Mortimer, or some other appellation more congenial to his lordship's aristocratic ears.

The late Mr. Gimlet has, as we have shown, managed matters very comfortably with the Lord Chief Justice, and may henceforward be easy on the score of his name. But had he had the misfortune to be a Welsh esquire of good family and estate, instead of an obscure London attorney, and had he had a private feud with Lord Llanover, he would have had a very different story to tell. The zealous Lord Lieutenant of Monmouthshire would forthwith have been smitten with an exaggerated zeal to defend a Royal Prerogative which has never existed, and which has never been claimed on the part of the Crown; he would have written reams of letters on the subject to the Home Office, to the Lord Chamberlain's Office, to the Heralds' Office, to the Clerk of the Peace in Monmouthshire, to the Clerk of the Crown in London, and to the Lord Chancellor, warning them that the unhappy Gimlet meditated becoming Henry in an illegal manner; he would have published all this correspondence in the *Monmouthshire Martinet* and the *Llanover Toady*, with comments the reverse of complimentary to the Gimlet family; in short he would, by means of the powers entrusted to him as Lord-Lieutenant of the county, have made the lives of every male and female Gimlet so utterly miserable that the poor creatures would have been driven to wish that they had never had any name at all. He would have excluded old Gimlet from the Magisterial Bench and young Gimlet from the Militia, and would have loftily informed them, when invited to explain his extraordinary conduct, that a British peer is only responsible to his peers for what he does.

We cannot forbear expressing our opinion that in this matter Sir George Grey and his subordinates are behaving extremely ill. When, in 1842, Mr. Jones, of Llanarth, Lord Llanover's son-in-law, applied for a Royal Licence to change his name to Herbert, it was readily granted to him, and to all his brothers and sisters. When, a year or two ago, Mr. Jones, of Clytha, the uncle of Mr. Jones, of Llanarth,

applied for the same indulgence, *on precisely the same grounds*, he met with a flat refusal. The whole of Monmouthshire knows that in the interval a violent quarrel had arisen between the two families of Llanover and Clytha. It is also said, we know not how truly, that Mr. Waddington, the permanent Under Secretary at the Home Office, is a near connexion of Lady Llanover, and in constant and intimate relation with Lord Llanover. Mr. Waddington is an excellent public servant; but at the same time he is mortal, and is, like all other great men, accessible to female influence. For which reason we think that the Home Office ought to have so conducted itself in the matter as to have been above the suspicion of backstairs influence. And we do not think that it has done so. Sir George Grey, when interrogated in Parliament by Mr. Roebuck, admitted the right of every Englishman to change his name if he pleases without Royal Licence, and justified the withholding a Royal Licence from Mr. Herbert, of Clytha, by the assertion that the rule at the Home Office is to grant such licences only in furtherance of testamentary conditions connected with property. In saying this, Sir George either told the truth or he did not. Any volume of the *Gazette* will prove that such had certainly not been the rule prior to his assertion in Parliament that it was the rule; but then it would have been fair to suppose Sir George might have meant that such was to be the rule in future, had not that supposition been rendered impossible by the circumstance of a Royal Licence having been immediately afterwards conceded to a certain Sir Henry Hoghton, who desired to become Sir Henry de Hoghton, and who was allowed to become so by Royal Licence—no testamentary conditions connected with property being in any way connected with the arrangement. We submit that this indicates the probable existence of a Llanover-Waddington spirit in the back premises of the Home-office; especially as Sir George Grey has allowed the following passage in Lord Llanover's published letter to Mr. Clifford to pass without remark or reproof. His lordship wrote:—"I therefore directed the clerk to the Secretary to write to Mr. W. R. Jones that I could not submit a name for a commission in the Militia which he had assumed without Royal authority, as if I did so I should act in direct interference with the prerogative of the Crown." Now, as this erroneous view of his duties as Lord Lieutenant has been publicly put forward by Lord Llanover, to the discredit and annoyance of a Magistrate of the county which has been confided to his charge, it seems but just to require that Sir George Grey, in whose name and by whose instructions Lord Llanover professes to be acting, should have administered to his lordship a correction as public as was the insult so wantonly given and so obstinately persevered in. But Sir George has remained silent on the subject, and by his silence fairly exposes himself to the imputation of supporting the Llanover-Waddington family feud in an underhand manner. Lord Llanover is either right or wrong in his dealings with Mr. Herbert, of Clytha, whom he delights to insult by addressing him in his official correspondence as Mr. Jones; and surely Sir George Grey ought to have the manliness to support his lordship openly if he is right, or to reprove him openly if he is wrong. But up to the present moment he has done neither; he has contented himself with making a statement concerning the rules adopted by his office in the matter of Royal Licences for change of name, which we are sorry to have to remark has been proved, by comparison with the practice of the office, to be untrue.

It is quite possible that Sir George Grey may disapprove of the existing condition of the law relating to change of surname; that he may consider it too lax; and may be of opinion that aristocratic names ought to be specially protected from assumption by the inferior classes. If he thinks so, his remedy is obvious and easy; for he is a Cabinet Minister, and is at the head of the very department by which a revision and change of the existing law might be most properly carried out. But it is surely unworthy of him to set the example of a shuffling resistance to the law as it exists; nor ought he for a moment longer to allow the Home Office to be degraded by a shabby and covert participation in these discreditable Llanover-Waddington squabbles, of which Monmouthshire and the public at large have already heard far too much.

GENERAL M'CLELLAN.

THE fact that General M'Clellan has been superseded has naturally excited much public attention. Though he has met with many reverses, he is the only officer on the Federal side who has gained for himself abroad a solid reputation as a man of military science and ability, or who has acquired the unbounded confidence of the men under his command. There is no surer test of merit than the power of inspiring such confidence. All great commanders have possessed it; and it is notorious that after Pope's defeat, not only the whole army demanded the recall of M'Clellan, but General Burnside, who has now taken his place, urged the Government to acquiesce in the demand made. There would have been no difficulty in interpreting the act of the President, if he had superseded M'Clellan after his disastrous defeat in the Peninsula, near Richmond,

but to take so serious a step just after he had reorganized a defeated army, marched sixty miles, fought the battle of Antietam, and compelled Lee to recross the Potomac, is not so intelligible. The ostensible ground upon which the Washington Government acted in superseding him is plain enough. General Halleck gave M'Clellan distinct orders to cross the Potomac, and to defeat the enemy, on November 6th, which M'Clellan deliberately disobeyed. According to the Commander-in-chief, the excuses put forward by M'Clellan were futile. He had ample supplies, and there was no difficulty in his way. According to General M'Clellan, he had not the means of moving his army. He disobeyed the order, and was consequently superseded.

There are probably other and more cogent reasons for the acts of the Government at Washington. It has been said that the President was afraid of M'Clellan executing a *coup d'état*, and seizing upon the White House. Such an attempt would be inconsistent both with M'Clellan's character and with that of the American people. Whatever may be M'Clellan's defects, he has behaved throughout with singular dignity and loyalty to the Union; nor is there any reason to suppose that the Americans are yet prepared to receive a military dictator. A much more simple explanation is at hand. At the very moment when M'Clellan received the order to advance, which he disobeyed, the elections were proceeding. It was, no doubt, of the utmost importance to the Government that some military success should be gained, or that some brilliant effort, even if unsuccessful, should be made to achieve such a success. It was natural, therefore, that M'Clellan should be ordered to cross the Potomac and engage the enemy at all hazards. If the general succeeded, a great blow would be inflicted on the Southern army; if he did not succeed, still the vigour of the Government would be made conspicuous, whilst the military *prestige* of M'Clellan would be materially damaged. Thus, whatever might be the result, the Government must gain, whilst M'Clellan might very probably lose. That the Republicans owe no favour to M'Clellan is notorious. He is, and always has been, a pronounced Democrat. He is known to disapprove of the proclamation issued by President Lincoln. His loyalty has been loudly assailed in the Republican journals. In short, as a politician, he is in direct opposition to the Government. No doubt, if President Lincoln could have dared to displace the best officer he had, and the most popular commander, he would long ago have done so. Fearing to supersede him directly, he was driven to do so indirectly. He therefore issued the command to advance, which he probably anticipated M'Clellan would disobey. That he should disobey was by no means improbable. The army under his command had not only been but a few days reorganized out of the remnants of Pope's routed battalions, but they had just fought a severe pitched battle with the victorious Confederates. The attack which he was called upon to make was an attack upon an enemy in an intrenched position and led by most able officers. It must be admitted, therefore, that a front assault would probably have resulted in a defeat, besides being opposed to the rules of war. The obvious mode of driving the Confederates back, was by acting upon their communications; and that this was the natural course, events have proved. As we showed last week, the Confederate army has been compelled to retire to the neighbourhood of Gordonsville by M'Clellan's march along the eastern slopes of the Blue Ridge. It can hardly be, that M'Clellan, who has still his spurs to win, would have deliberately disobeyed the order of the Commander-in-chief without strong reasons. No doubt he had made up his mind that success was impracticable. He preferred to be superseded to sacrificing his army; and probably he acted wisely. At the same time, he has enabled the Republicans to get rid of a Democratic commander in the field, though probably he will reappear in another field, to lead the Democrats against his late Republican masters.

THE DISTRESSED WORKPEOPLE IN THE NORTH.

THE idea which occupies the mind of England is how each individual can best aid those who are in distress. It is fortunate that the Government has found a man who has the intelligence and the sagacity to organize a system of relieving those who are distressed by the present calamity, in a way which, while it respects the independence of the workpeople, supplies their necessities. Mr. Farnall, who has organised this system, deserves the greatest credit; and there can be no doubt that the best mode in which relief can be distributed is by the agency of the central executive committee of Manchester. In order to justify this opinion, it may be useful to explain shortly the organization devised by Mr. Farnall for the purpose of affording relief.

In order to explain the plan, it may be convenient to quote the words of the report of the central executive relief committee of Manchester, dated the 3rd instant, which report was unanimously adopted by the noblemen and gentlemen forming that committee, and was signed by their presiding chairman, the Earl of Derby.

The following are the observations referred to:—"Your committee have great satisfaction in reporting that they have organized,

throughout the cotton manufacturing districts, a complete scheme for affording prompt and reasonable aid, both in money and clothing, to the unemployed operatives, which gives comfort and confidence to the distressed work-people, without destroying that self-respect and independence which has hitherto characterized that valuable class, and, at the same time, affords security to all classes of society, by combining immediate and sufficient relief, with appropriate employment under strict but merciful supervision. Under this arrangement, the various townships of the district are allotted to the care of resident local committees, composed of gentlemen whose position and experience are a guarantee that the funds entrusted to them by your committee will be disbursed with liberality and prudence. In order more effectually to secure the perfect working of this scheme, the services of Mr. Adamson have been obtained from Government for the purpose of visiting, under the direction of the executive committee, the various local committees, so that perfect harmony of action may be obtained."

In order to show not only that the distressed operatives are being systematically and carefully aided, but that the central executive committee of Manchester and the resident local committees of charity have, in affording that aid, adopted the sound principles of the Poor Laws, and that the several local committees and Boards of Guardians in the distressed districts are acting harmoniously together for the public good, it is important to state shortly the general outlines of the scheme.

There is in Manchester a central relief committee, and also a central executive relief committee; the duty of the former is to solicit subscriptions to aid the distressed operatives; the duty of the latter is to make grants of money to the resident local committees of charity throughout the distressed districts. The central executive committee is limited to twenty-six persons, of whom Mr. Farnall is one. The general committee is unlimited in numbers.

The Mayor of Manchester is chairman of the general committee, and the Earl of Derby is chairman of the central executive committee, which executive committee was appointed by the general committee.

All subscriptions are received by the general committee, and are then forthwith paid to their bankers, Messrs. Heywood Brothers and Co., Manchester.

All payments, made by the central executive committee, are made through the medium of a cheque on Mr. A. H. Heywood, their treasurer.

Each resident local committee of charity is formed of the land-owners, ministers of religion, and employers of labour in each district, and to these local committees the central executive committee make grants of money.

The central executive committee and the local committee meet once in each week for the purpose of aiding the distressed operatives.

The board of guardians in each district opens its books for the inspection of the local committees of charity, and the local committees open their books for the inspection of the boards of guardians.

No grant is made to any local committee by the central executive committee without the following information:—The net rateable value of the district, its population, the number of cotton mills, the number of operatives usually employed, the number of operatives in full and in short work, the number wholly unemployed, the number of persons relieved by the guardians, and the average scale of the relief; the number of persons relieved by the local committee, and the average scale of the relief; the number of persons aided both by the guardians and the local committees, and the average scale of the combined relief; the amount of local funds collected and promised in the distressed district, the cash in hand, and the amount of money received from other than local sources.

When these questions are satisfactorily answered in writing, the central executive committee draw a cheque on their treasurer for such an amount as the requirements of any distressed district may call for, and the receipt of such cheque is acknowledged by the local committee; and no cheque is drawn without the vote of the executive committee being taken on it.

The information sent to the executive committee is tested personally either by Mr. Adamson or Mr. Farnall, and written reports of such investigations are sent in to and invariably read by the executive committee; moreover, the whole of the distressed districts are well represented by the noblemen and gentlemen who form the executive committee.

Minutes of the proceedings of the executive committee are fully and fairly entered in a ledger, and are read and approved at each meeting prior to their receiving the confirmation of the committee and the signature of the Chairman.

It may be stated, that the local executive committee, the resident local committee, and the board of guardians, have arrived at the conclusion, that an operative and his family require two shillings per head per week to meet the winter; and it appears that the several boards of guardians in the distressed districts are gradually adopting this scale of relief for that class of poor persons.

On the Monday preceding the 14th of November, the executive

committee, after making their grants for the day, had at their disposal about £110,000, but that sum has been since augmented.

It is clear from the letter of Dr. Temple, the head master of Rugby, who, with two friends, has personally investigated the state of matters in the distressed districts, not only that the relief is admirably administered, but that the behaviour of the workpeople and of their employers is most praiseworthy. It only remains, therefore, that the fellow-citizens of those who are reduced to these terrible straits by an unavoidable necessity should contribute liberally and judiciously. The best plan, therefore, will be to send any contributions to the Manchester Central Committee of Relief, the chairman of which is the Mayor of Manchester.

THE RENT STRUGGLE IN BENGAL.

BENGAL has lately entered upon a state of litigation, for which it would be difficult to find a parallel in any other country but India. The great rent-appeal case which has just been decided in favour of the landlord, Mr. Hills, by the High Court at Calcutta, is not a single isolated case which is only of importance to the immediate parties concerned. There are in the same district in which that case arose at the least 500 other cases now pending, which will all be ruled by the decision of Sir Barnes Peacock. Indeed, it is hardly an exaggeration to say that, in certain districts of considerable extent, the greater part of the cultivators and occupiers of land are at the present moment engaged in law-suits with their landlords. No litigation of the same extent has been witnessed, even in India, since the years which immediately followed the Cornwallis settlement, when the accumulation of undecided causes became so great, that in some places it appeared, by computation, that none of the later candidates for justice could expect to obtain a decision during the ordinary period of their lives. The Bengalee ryots, though weak and altogether wanting in the courage and spirit which is necessary to resist oppression, have one plan of defence, to which they seldom fail to resort. The native landlord has always had it in his power to oppress the ryot, but the ryots in turn have it in their power to distress the landlord. They can compel him to have recourse to law to obtain payment of his rent. Hence arises that wide-spread spirit of litigation which has long been the curse of India. In the suits which are now going on in certain districts of Bengal, there are two features which distinguish the present phase of litigation from any preceding one, and cannot fail at once to arrest attention. In the first place, there is not one of those 500 cases in which the object is to obtain payment of rent. In every instance the landlord seeks merely to raise his rent for the future. It sounds strange enough in English ears that a court of justice should undertake to regulate the contracts between landlord and tenant, and to decide what is a fair and equitable rent for a given piece of land. In this country it is no part of the business of a judge to make contracts; his functions are confined to enforcing them. This is one remarkable feature of the present proceedings. The other is not less surprising. The whole of the cases that are now in dispute with respect to the increase of rent, have arisen on the estates of English landlords. The decision of the Chief Justice of Bengal in favour of Mr. Hills will apply to so many tenants on his estate that the increase thus made to Mr. Hills' rent-roll will amount to several thousand pounds a year. Now, although it is the rule with native landlords to exercise oppression and make illegal exactions on their tenants, English landowners, as a body, in India will scarcely be accused of wishing to oppress their tenants by raising their rents unduly. It is, therefore, important to inquire into the causes which have produced these two remarkable results. What has caused this sudden disturbance in the relations between landlord and tenant in Bengal, and how does it happen that, for the present at least, this disturbance is confined to the estates held by Englishmen?

The immediate cause of all the disturbance is the rent law of 1859. It has often been maintained that the multiplication of law-suits consequent on the passing of a new law, is a proof of bad legislation. It is certain that an Act, which was passed for the express purpose of settling the relations between landlord and tenant, and which has actually resulted in unsettling them, cannot be called a successful effort of law-making. Judged by this test, the recent rent-law, which, according to Indian nomenclature, is generally known as Act X. of 1859, must be pronounced a failure. The number of suits with respect to rent increased by many thousands in the first year after it came into full operation. The cost of litigation has of course been enormous. Some of the Acts in our own statute-book, which have been much lauded, have been pretty well in this respect. Every word of the Statute of Frauds is said to have cost a subsidy. But the litigation that arose on that statute is hardly worthy of being mentioned with that on Act X. More suits have been caused by this unfortunate Act, in a single year, than arose on the Statute of Frauds in a century. India is now paying, by the increased cost of litigation and by the disturbance of peaceful relations, for this hasty and ill-considered, though well-intended piece of legislation. The intention of the framers of the Act was excellent. They wished to

find a remedy for the exactions and oppressions which the ryots were every day suffering at the hands of the zemindars. If they had succeeded in this attempt, they would have deserved the gratitude of this country no less than of India. The security and protection of the ryot is the greatest aim which an administrator can set before him. The cultivators of the land are the bone and sinew of the country, and as long as they are contented and happy, our Government cannot be shaken. We have nothing to fear in India as long as the ryot is our friend. They have, however, been for centuries exposed to oppression, and they have learnt the vices of a people who have never been free. They have lost the spirit of defending themselves, and our power, great as it is in a military point of view, has not been sufficient to protect them from those exactions to which they are exposed in the numerous transactions which arise between them and the native zemindars. The power which the latter possessed, since the beginning of the present century, of summoning their tenants to their residences, for the purpose of adjusting their rents, was one great instrument of oppression. When there, they were completely in the zemindar's power, who might put them in duress, and force them into any agreement which he chose to dictate. Act X. was passed with the laudable design of ending this oppression, and defining more strictly the relations between the ryot and his superior.

In this design the Act appears, as far as can yet be judged, to have signally failed. Had the framers of the Act contented themselves with sweeping away those excessive powers in the hands of the zemindars, which had proved dangerous instruments of oppression, the result would have been wholly good; but the Act went much farther. It enacted, in the first place, that all persons who had occupied or cultivated any lands for a period of twelve years, should have thenceforth a right of occupancy of such lands at fair and equitable rates. The rent once fixed is to be afterwards unalterable. The ryot, as long as he pays his rent, will have as permanent an interest in the land as his landlord. Thus, by a sudden stroke, the landowner found himself deprived of his sole property in his lands, and made joint proprietor with his tenants. But the section of the Act which has given rise to the present litigation is that which relates to the mode of fixing a "fair and equitable" rate of rent. The amount previously paid is to be considered fair and equitable, unless the contrary can be shown. One of the grounds on which a ryot is made liable to have his rent increased above the previously existing rates, is when it can be shown "that the value of the produce or the productive powers of the land have been increased otherwise than by the agency or at the expense of the ryot." In cases of dispute, the rent is to be fixed by a suit in one of the ordinary courts. It is easily seen what occasion there will be in this single enactment for an endless multiplicity of suits. The courts of law are turned from their proper functions to others for which they are quite incompetent. In deciding what is a fair and equitable rent for a given piece of land judges are, in fact, making the contract between the landlord and his tenant. The Act laid down no principle for the guidance of the court in coming to a decision. In this absence of authoritative rule the Chief Justice had recourse to writers on political economy, and finally succeeded in finding a passage in Malthus on which he based his decision. Sir Barnes Peacock was unquestionably right in reversing the judgment of the court below, but whether the amount at which he has himself fixed the rent, and which is the rate asked by Mr. Hills, is itself "fair and equitable," it is, of course, impossible for us to decide. What was required of the law was that the ryot should be protected against illegal exactions on the part of his superiors, not that he should be treated as a child and have all his contracts supervised by a paternal Government.

It is easy to see how it has happened that the suits for the increase of rent have hitherto arisen with respect to lands belonging to English landlords. The districts that are now disturbed by the disputes about rent are almost identical with those where the late indigo disturbances prevailed. Those estates were bought by Englishmen principally with a view to the cultivation of indigo, and the rents have hitherto been generally very low. The landlords were comparatively indifferent on this subject as long as the cultivators were willing to plant indigo; the lowness of the rent was possibly one inducement with the tenants to carry on an unprofitable and, therefore, an unpopular cultivation. When the ryots refused to carry out their contracts with respect to indigo, the landlords became anxious to raise their rents, which were much below those that generally prevailed on similar lands held under native landlords. Act X. gave the ryots the power of resisting this increase and of compelling the landlord to have the rate settled by a suit in the ordinary courts. There is another clause of the Act which deserves notice. The rate cannot of course be raised in any case where it has remained the same since the permanent settlement by Lord Cornwallis. It is now enacted that, when it has not been altered for twenty years, this shall be *prima facie* proof of its having been the same since that settlement. Landlords will naturally be anxious not to allow time to run against them, and will hasten to raise their rents before it is too late. This feeling will add to the suits likely to arise under this unfortunate Act.

MILITARY MORALITY IN 1862.

IT is impossible to deny that the deplorably low tone of morality which at the present moment unquestionably characterizes the British army, is, in a great measure, due to the indifference or weakness of its higher authorities, who have, on more than one occasion of late, shrunk from stigmatizing with appropriate severity the most flagrant deviations from the laws of truth, honour, and justice, on the part of those over whose reputations it is their imperative duty to maintain a vigilant watch.

Not many months have elapsed since the public was astonished and disgusted by the proceedings of the Robertson-Bentinck court-martial in Dublin. For a period of thirty days commissioned officers in her Majesty's service were heard manifestly forswearing themselves in open court; the official prosecutor was heard to declare formally that they were so forswearing themselves; and the Court actually went so far as to impound the note-book of one of the most prominent actors in the scene, a major of dragoons, "with a view to ulterior proceedings." The verdict ultimately arrived at was so manifestly unjust, that it was immediately quashed; whilst Colonel Bentinck, the prosecutor, was quietly allowed to retire on half-pay before he had served his full time, an indulgence scarcely ever conceded to officers who have distinguished themselves in their profession far otherwise than did Colonel Bentinck in his abortive campaign against Captain Robertson. The gentlemen who were accused of falsehood by the official prosecutors till remain on the full pay of their regiment, as does the gallant major whose note-book was impounded with such significant solemnity. What became of the note-book has never been divulged.

It might have been expected that a disgraceful imbroglio of this kind would have elicited some public remark or censure from the Royal Duke who is at the head of the army; that, for the guidance of other commanding officers, Colonel Bentinck would have been publicly informed what his Royal Highness thought of the manner in which the interior economy of his regiment had been conducted; and whether his retirement on premature half-pay was to be considered as an indulgence conceded to his merits, or a punishment awarded to his want of temper and discretion. The officers so directly accused of perjury by Colonel Brownrigg might have expected, too, that some public proceedings would have been taken against them, or some public explanation afforded them of the public insult they had received, before they were sent back to their duty; and it is surely incompatible with the honourable position of a field officer in the British service that he should be maintained in a position in which he is liable to be reminded daily by his brother officers that his private note-book has been publicly impounded by a General Court-martial, "with a view to ulterior proceedings" against him.

But so it is. All the circumstances to which we have alluded took place several months ago; and the Commander-in-Chief has, up to the present moment, made no sign, either in approval or in disapprobation.

Next came the court-martial in the 11th Hussars. Its proceedings divulged a low scene of mess-room intoxication, gambling, and fighting, in which a cornet of horse stigmatized the veterinary surgeon of his regiment as "nothing better than a damned stud groom;" the surgeon not unnaturally retorting by the words "liar" and "cur," and finally by a blow. The Court cashiered the veterinary surgeon; which sentence was confirmed by the Commander-in-Chief without a single remark. Whether his Royal Highness disapproved of the language used in the first instance by the cornet to the veterinary surgeon, or of the low scenes of debauchery disclosed on the trial, remains a secret between the lieutenant-colonel of the 11th Hussars and the Horse Guards, in which the rest of the army and the public have not hitherto been permitted to participate.

Then we had the affair of the 6th Dragoon Guards in India, and the astonishing comments of the Commander-in-Chief in India on the finding of the court-martial in that business—which we will venture to say, for palpable injustice and audacious partiality, are unparalleled in the records of the service. Of the Duke of Cambridge's opinion on them we have as yet heard nothing, and shall, in all probability, hear nothing. The next mail brought the case of Colonel Priestley, lieutenant-colonel of the 42nd Highlanders, who, sitting next to a military acquaintance at a *table d'hôte* dinner at a club, and entering into private and familiar conversation with him, officially reported his neighbour's confidential observations to a superior authority, because he considered them disrespectful to the Commander-in-Chief, who entirely approves of what Colonel Priestley has done, and has persecuted and degraded the gentleman whose confidence had been thus foully betrayed. And, lastly, we have these Raindeer and Tarragona scandals, about which we are told, by a brief unofficial paragraph in a military paper, that a court of inquiry, composed of four officers of Colonel Burnaby's own regiment, is now carrying on an investigation in private. We respectfully ask his Royal Highness the Commander-in-Chief what result he can possibly anticipate from an inquiry privately carried on by the brother officers of the party accused, who have neither the power of compelling witnesses to attend nor of examining them on oath? If they acquit

Colonel Burnaby and his friend, will their acquittal clear those officers in the eyes of the world from the stain affixed to them by the various letters published by the noblemen and gentlemen who have openly accused them of foul play at Mamhead and elsewhere? If they condemn them, will they—ought they to rest satisfied with the verdict of such a tribunal—a verdict which will at once and for ever expel them from their profession and from the society of honourable men? We think not. We believe that the only conclusive manner in which the various questions raised against Colonel Burnaby and Mr. Stewart can be decided will be by an action at law brought against the originators of the accusation against them; and we think that the sooner his Royal Highness insists on such an action being brought, the better for the credit of the service.

Officers of the old school, in talking over such matters as those upon which we have now commented, are apt to remind us that, in bygone days, when duelling was rife, matters were very differently managed, and similar scandals were comparatively unknown. Military men were then held to be, by a professional fiction, more honourable, truthful, and brave, than the rest of mankind. Other virtues they might safely be supposed to lack, but truth, honour, and courage, were theirs *ex officio*. It is very possible that even in that golden age as many military men lied, cheated, and “fucked,” as we fear they will do and have done in all former and subsequent ages; but then if, on detection, they were willing to “go out” with the unlucky individual who had detected them in those unmilitary weaknesses, and kill or wound, or be killed or wounded, or fire in the air and shake hands, as the case might be, it was further ruled, by the “laws of honour,” that every imputation against them should vanish and be heard of no more. Many a shattered military reputation was thus patched up against all evidence and all common sense by the convincing and all-sufficient appeal to the small-sword or the pistol, before which no evidence, no common sense, was ever permitted to make a moment's stand. And there can be little doubt that this method of getting out of discreditable difficulties, unsatisfactory as it might be to the *pékins*, whose wives and daughters they seduced and whose money they won, was extremely convenient to many officers of damaged character and reasonably strong nerves, and was, on the whole, conducive to the honour and glory of the military portion of the community, as long as the rest of their fellow-subjects would submit to it.

But now-a-days duelling is no longer tolerated, in this country at least; and if military men choose to involve themselves in disgraceful difficulties of any kind, they must get out of them by exactly the same process as they would do if they were clergymen or linen-draper's apprentices. If they tamper with their neighbours' wives, Sir Cresswell Cresswell awaits them in the Divorce Court; if they trespass on their neighbour's property, the nature and amount of the penalty to be paid must be adjusted in a court of law. The Guardsman or the Dragoon caught tripping in any way must submit his conduct to precisely the same sort of scrutiny as he would be required to do if he wore a black or a brown coat instead of a red one; nor will the alarming proposal of an adjournment to Wormwood Scrubs or Wimbledon Common now avail him aught towards settling a complicated case of seduction, adultery, or cheating at play. The new police and the improved administration of the law have happily become too strong for the traditional “laws of honour” so dear to billiard-room captains and betting-ring colonels; and we, civilians, must be permitted to observe that we think the change is one which is a credit to the advanced civilization of the country, and an unquestionable boon to social order and morality in general.

A VENAL PRESS.

THE preliminary proceedings in the action of *Glover v. Billault* throw of course very little light on the substantial merits of the case. Serjeant Glover affirms upon oath, and M. Billault denies under the same sanction, that the French Government bespoke, but did not pay for, no less than £14,000 worth of articles, of which the bulk were published in the *Morning Chronicle*, and the rest were translated into various French newspapers. The Court of Queen's Bench has decided that the case must go to trial, and the Emperor's Government will accordingly have the satisfaction of appearing before an English jury, to the mutual satisfaction, it is to be hoped, of the two parties. Of course it would be improper to anticipate in any way the decision of this tribunal. The public will wait with considerable curiosity to see whether M. Billault will succeed in virtually convicting Serjeant Glover of an audacious attempt to extort money by perjury, or whether Serjeant Glover will make out, what certainly does not at first sight appear very probable, that any sensible man, acquainted with England and English society, should think it worth his while to spend £14,000 in buying articles in the *Morning Chronicle*. It is a very pretty quarrel as it stands.

Some regret will, no doubt, be excited amongst those who care for the credit of English journalism by the fact that so old and respectable a name as that of the *Morning Chronicle* should go out in such a very unsavoury manner. The *Morning Chronicle* was the oldest of London daily papers and was, for a long time, one of the most influential. As the great Whig organ, it enjoyed

probably as high a position as any journal of its day. It passed, however, into a rapid decline, and after a parenthesis of suppressed Puseyism, sank into a wretched condition of degradation, in which it expired some time since. It is hard to see its ghost haunting the law courts, in which, in old times, it triumphed over persecuting attorney-generals, for the sake of extorting from a French minister the wages for which it says it sold itself. This, however, like other bad jobs, suggests no other reflections than those which relate to the mutability of human affairs, and are in that capacity rather stale.

The feeling which the transaction itself excites, apart from the associations with which it is connected, is another matter. Almost every one feels that there is something degrading in the position in which, as Serjeant Glover says, he has been standing for some years past. No gentleman would like to be told that he was the hired exponent of the views of the French Ministry; and if he did stand in that position, he would, as a matter of course, carefully conceal it. It does not appear, at first sight, why this should be the case. A newspaper, it may be said, is essentially and before everything else a commercial speculation. It must either pay or stop, and if it is to pay, it must contain matter which will be acceptable to its readers. No one who knows anything about the matter, supposes that the leading articles in the principal London papers represent exclusively or even mainly the private opinions of those who write or of those who edit them. The management of a newspaper is very like the management of a political party. It is no more the object of the paper to investigate and promulgate abstract truth, than it is the object of a political party to advocate an ideal policy. Each has to cut its coat to its cloth, each has to act with reference mainly to the state of public feeling for the time being, and with only occasional reference to individual personal opinion. This being so, why, it may be asked, should not a journal be the representative of a man or of a class, as well as of the public at large? It is universally admitted that the advocacy of views acceptable to the public is a useful and honourable occupation; yet in this case the persons interested are paid in various indirect ways, quite as effectually as if they were paid by a cheque from an individual, for maintaining views which, if not opposed to their own, are at any rate very different from those which they would maintain in their private capacity. Why, then, is journalism in general considered creditable, and subsidized journalism considered disgraceful? The answer is not, as it might at first sight appear to be, that the one is, and the other is not, the expression of an independent opinion, for neither can claim that position; but that the one by implication admits its dependence on the public, and that the other by implication, though falsely, asserts it. If a newspaper openly avowed that it was the paid organ of a particular person or a particular clique, no sort of blame would attach to it. Indeed, such arrangements are common enough, and if made openly and avowedly, no one thinks of blaming them. Who, for instance, would ever reproach the *Morning Advertiser* with its connection with the licensed victuallers; or assert that there is anything wrong in the practice common to almost all political agitators, of establishing newspapers for the express purpose of advocating their opinions? The French Government do not act at all more immorally in keeping an English newspaper, if they think it worth their while, than the teetotallers, the Anti-Corn Law League, the publicans, or the Bible Society, if they were to do the same thing, as some of them have. Of course, if the connection is denied, or so carefully disguised as to be in effect denied, it is a different matter. In that case, the public is deceived. People are induced to read the paper by the pretence that the opinions which it maintains are put forward as those which the writer *bonâ fide* supposes will be acceptable to the public, when, in fact, they are those which he supposes will be acceptable to his private employer.

The really curious part of the business is, that anyone should think it worth his while to enter into such an arrangement. There may be some confusion in the common notion as to the morality of bargains of the class in question; but there can be no question at all as to the effect which is produced by the very suspicion that such an arrangement has been made. It destroys at once and for ever the whole influence of the paper, and, generally speaking, destroys its circulation. Nor is this all: if such arrangements are made they are always found out. It is almost impossible to keep them really secret. If they are to be of any use to those who make them, the papers with which they are made must constantly find themselves in opposition, not merely to the main current of popular feeling, but to its principal eddies and back-waters. They will have to maintain this position, which no one would think of maintaining without a bribe, and there can be no mistake as to the interpretation which such conduct must bear.

The truth is that to enter into such a bargain reveals an utter want of apprehension of the true relation of journalism to public opinion. Writers in newspapers are often regarded much as if they were or ought to be so many judges or philosophical inquirers living apart and delivering to the world the result of their observations on what passes in it. By another class of observers they are regarded as mere flatterers, saying nothing but what they think will sell their paper. In reality they occupy neither of these positions, but one which lies between the two, and which combines their characteristics. A journalist, whether editor or writer, is like every other man of business. He must make a profit; but in order to do so he must have a will of his own and aim at something beyond a profit. In every walk of life there is something of the same kind. A lawyer, for

instance, represents his client; but no respectable lawyer would or does carry out this principle to its entire length. If he did, he would find that he had sold his birthright without getting his mess of pottage. In the same way a journalist in the main must consider what the public will like, but to do so truthfully he must not have the effect of pleasing always before him. He must remember that what people in general like is not subserviency, but honesty and plain speaking. They will neglect a man who has no opinion of his own, just as much as a man who sympathizes with no opinion of theirs. To be slavish is as sure a way of losing influence as to be thoroughly eccentric. Besides this, it must always be remembered that a journalist is one of the public himself, and that he derives the greater part of his influence with his neighbours, from their belief that he bears that fact in mind. When an Englishman reads an article written by and addressed to Englishmen, he tacitly assumes that the writer is as much interested as he is himself in all that concerns the common welfare of the English people. If he sees reason to doubt this, he withdraws his confidence from him, and whatever his abilities may be, ceases to take any interest in what he writes. Few things in their way are more surprising than the ease with which the public at large discover whether a writer is really one of themselves, forming and expressing his opinions from the same complicated, and sometimes contradictory, feelings from which ordinary people form them. If they think he is, they will tolerate almost anything, so long as what he writes is interesting. They will allow him to advocate opinions because he thinks they are or soon will be popular, or because it is the fashion, or from a love of paradox, or even from personal likings or dislikes. They will forgive and at intervals enjoy a great degree of harshness, inconsistency, and injustice; for all these are influences to which not only journalists but all other men are subject in the formation of their opinions, and the journalist's sentiments, if they are genuine, will usually find a response of some sort in some at least of his readers; but there are other things which they will not bear, and which are fatal to all influence when they appear. A man who writes as a mere secretary, who has no personal opinions at all, appeals to no sympathy, and consequently produces far less effect than his employer would evoke if he wrote in his own person. All whom it concerns may rely upon the statement that the popularity and weight of any expression of opinion depend upon the nature of the opinion itself. If it is one which interests the public, and which they care to hear, plenty of channels for its expression without hire will always be found. If it is not, no power on earth will make it popular, and the £14,000 or £140,000 laid out for the purpose might as well be employed in flogging a dead horse.

ROMISH "AIDS TO PIETY."

THOSE who believe in the progressive, as opposed to the circular theory, of the movements of the Human Race, and who imagine that the most highly civilized and most "advanced" communities may not, through political accident or the caprice of fashion, revert, in some fond moment of credulous enthusiasm, to the foibles and convictions of their earliest youth, might, with great advantage, contrast the France of the Revolution and Voltaire with the France of the Second Empire and Napoleon III. It was natural, indeed, that so violent an outbreak of disorder, impiety, and political fanaticism, should be followed by a reaction of stringent propriety, religious interest, and languid acquiescence in the first constituted authority that claimed and could enforce obedience. But it was hardly to be expected that the eldest daughter of the Church, having once deserted her traditional beliefs, and thrown aside, with the impatience of long-suppressed contempt, the bonds which for ages had bound her, should, half a century afterwards, willingly submit her neck to the yoke that seemed shattered for ever, and return, with all the eagerness of a penitent, to the shrines at which, in her first period of innocent docility, she was accustomed to bend. It seemed hardly probable that a race so intolerant of absurdity, so critical in belief, and so exquisitely alive to the ridiculous, should deliberately recur to those portions of its primitive faith which the Church herself considers too uncertain to vouch for, and which no ordinary mortals can allude to without a smile. Religious faith, it might have been reasonably said, if ever re-established, will arise from the troubled waters of the Revolution, purged of the impurities and the follies with which the slow accretion of ages has incrustured it. The gross fables engendered in the muddy brains and prurient imaginations of Mediæval recluses, will have sunk for ever; the masks of stupid ignorance, abject and childish superstition, the half-playful indelicacies with which every infant society loves to surround its theology, will have been washed away; the Church, when the turmoil of Atheism and misrule has subsided, will reappear, still indeed the same, but in a shape which will not shock the sense of reasonable men, or provoke the taunts of the irreverent, or gratify the gross desires of vulgar ignorance. The fabulous element will have been eliminated, and the credulity of the faithful will no longer be taxed by stories which are essential to no creed, which subserve no principle, which are supported by no semblance of authority, and which illustrate nothing but the sagacious intrepidity of those who invented, and the abject superstition of those who believed them. Religion will no longer be matter for children, fine ladies, and peasants; it will be shorn, not of its real glory, but of the impure and unsubstantial lustre, which, like the phosphoric secretion of some boggy marsh, glitters only to deceive or to disgust those upon whom for a

few moments it imposes. The claims of Reason and Faith will once more be adjusted; and freed from her unhealthy accessories, Religion will again command, if not the obedience, at any rate the attention and respect of reasonable men.

Far other has been the course of events. More than devotion could have prayed for, brighter prospects than even hope itself would have dared depict, have been realized. France has returned to her first love with more than her first enthusiasm; the derision which, in her moment of frenzy, she heaped upon sacred things, has passed away like a bad dream. A golden age of sentimental pietism has dawned upon mankind; faith so earnest as to require ample material, is the rule of society; all the pretty appliances of the middle ages are once more in requisition. The Saviour of Society, and the lovely partner of his joys and sorrows, lay aside for a while the trappings of the court, and journey as imperial pilgrims, to offer homage at a favourite shrine, and bespeak the kind interference of a local patron for the new régime. So much devotion brings its own reward, and the epoch of miracles returns in all its pristine activity: naughty little shepherds and shepherdesses are confronted by the Madonna, well scolded for their misdeemeanors, and entrusted with messages to the village curé; confirmed invalids are taken to a favourite shrine, or blessed with the touch of some holy relic, and forthwith restored. The old men see visions, and the young men dream dreams; nature's self relaxes her rule of invariability in behalf of a devout epoch; and religion, so at least the ladies and priests determine, has once more been reinstated, with even antiquarian accuracy, among the children of those who worshipped no deity but Voltaire, believed in nothing but the Encyclopædists, and who scarcely condescended to pay their Maker the doubtful compliment of formally "suppressing" Him.

This all sounds very pretty at a distance, but as French Catholicism is costing the European world a good deal just now, and keeping at least one great community in chronic disturbance, we have a right to inspect it with a critical eye, and scrutinize each item of this imposing and romantic idea. Italy, it is said, cannot have Rome, because of the susceptibilities of Christendom,—that is, because of the priests who influence the Empress, the Empress who sets the fashion to the ladies, and the ladies who give the cue to society. What, then, is the religious sentiment, for the fostering of which so much zeal is expended, and such a wide-spread organization at work? What are the susceptibilities which, in the face of all reasonable Catholics, in direct antagonism to the warnings and entreaties of learned churchmen like Passaglia, in open defiance of the rights of nations and the common law of Europe, necessitate the hostile occupation of the most interesting capital in Europe, the refusal of the wishes of the vast majority of the Italian nation, and the keeping open a deadly sore in a society which would be otherwise vigorous, united, and tranquil? Let us take a single instance of the sort of piety which is just now the fashion in France, and of the material, not to say, the garbage, on which it feeds. In the Department of Vienne and the Commune of Charroux, a gentleman last summer was prompted, by his own good instincts and the bishop of the diocese, to forward a petition to the Minister of the Interior, praying for the authorization of a lottery for 500,000 francs, of which 125,000 only would be within reach of the public, and the remaining 375,000 be devoted to a "pious use." The "pious use" involves a story of its own. The Abbey of Charroux, it appears, was founded by Charlemagne, and endowed by him with messuages, tenements, hereditaments, gold and silver, and precious stones, and ample revenues, but above all with some invaluable relics. One of these is the moving cause of the present agitation. Charroux, so the subscribers to the lottery are requested to believe, is only a corruption of *Caro Rubra*, and the *Caro Rubra* in question is nothing less than an actual piece of flesh from the body of the infant Jesus. The details of its history it is impossible for us to describe, but it appears from early times to have been regarded as of miraculous efficacy by ladies at any interesting period of their career, and to have been honoured by a special bull of Pope Clement VII., granting particular indulgences on the occasion of its being shown. On the capture of Charroux by the Huguenots, in the sixteenth century, the relic disappeared, and the wounded piety of France had to deplore its loss till six years ago, when some masons in opening a wall discovered two vessels (such as are used in churches for the preservation of relics); and the bishop, on being referred to, pronounced with great presence of mind, that they were the identical relics of Charroux, that they should be called thenceforth "*caro et sanguis*," and be confided to the care of a sisterhood of St. Ursula, who might by their maiden vigilance guard them from all unholy contact, and obviate at any rate the unfortunate recurrence of their disappearance. In order to enhance the splendour of his decision, he promised certain other relics,—a piece of the holy coat, and a shred from the true sponge,—and directed that these collected treasures of the past should be carried in solemn state, every seventh year, for the edification of mankind, upon that festival of the Church which commemorates the Judaic ceremonial, to which the founder of Christianity was in his infancy submitted. So much splendour necessitated an appropriate residence, and the "pious use" of the lottery at Charroux is to build a fitting receptacle for the principal object of attraction. Hither ladies who are in an interesting condition, or ladies who aspire to become so, will equally repair, will caress the equivocal fragment, and will, we sincerely trust, experience the beneficial results of their "devotion." Meanwhile the lottery is likely to produce all those social disorders, the general

excitement, the spirit of speculation, the wild hopes, and bitter disappointments, which are inseparable from a system of gambling; and which have led, we believe, to its suppression in every European community, except in that favoured fold over which the Father of the Faithful presides in person. A far more serious result is that the whole subject of religion is lowered and disgraced by such humiliations and dishonest pandering to the lowest and most vulgar appetites of the uninstructed portions of society.

The absolute triviality of the whole seems its least repulsive characteristic. The mysteries of theology reasonably enough claim all the thought, labour, and ability which any man can bring to bear upon them; but a theology which fans the flames of its adherents' zeal by little bits of flesh, septennial processions, and encouraging promises to philoprogenitive matrons, is surely putting itself beyond the limit which reasonable men will choose to pass. "*Defense à Dieu*," so runs the song, "*de faire miracles dans ce lieu*," and common-sense suggests a similar prohibition, wherever the prurient imagination of a semi-barbarous age and the superstitious restlessness of would-be mothers invoke an interruption of the laws of nature in honour of a fragment of flesh, which is certainly not what it pretends to be, and which, if it were, ought at once to be withdrawn from the impertinent gaze of mankind, and consigned, along with all other unseemly curiosities, to the oblivion to which accident has already once consigned it.

COMMERCIAL BLOCKADES.—THE JURIDICAL SOCIETY.

THE continuance of the American war, and the distress in the manufacturing districts, bring home to us the subject of commercial blockades, and render it one of the most important questions of the day. England has been seldom a neutral power in any of the great wars of the last two hundred years, and has never had occasion to feel the inconveniences to which an innocent nation may be exposed by the quarrels of her neighbours. Her jurists and her statesmen have induced her uniformly to turn a deaf ear to the advocates of the neutral rights; and far-sighted, intelligent, and quickly alive, as she is, to her own vital interests, she has permitted herself to be led blindly along by short-sighted advisers. She has been taught by them to believe that no great war can take place in any part of the civilized world without her participation, and that therefore it is imperative on her to carry out the theory and practice of belligerent rights to an extreme. The wise and prudent relaxations which were introduced into our code of maritime law at the period of the Russian war were strongly objected to at the time, and were, as is most probable, only acceded to in consequence of the strong wishes of the Emperor Napoleon. Maritime law in war was with us till that period a mass of decisions of belligerent courts, built upon and taking as their root a rude congeries of customs which originated in the so-called dark and middle ages, when might was too often another name for right, and the voice of neutral nations was esteemed too insignificant to be worthy of attention. The treaty of Vienna was silent on the subject, and though provisions and stipulations were introduced from time to time in treaties between foreign powers, the great maritime power, England, held aloof, and would not listen to any diminution of the belligerent rights.

A change has, however, come over the scene, and England is now feeling to a greater degree than has ever yet been experienced by any neutral power the fruits of her extreme doctrines on the subject. The blockade of the Southern ports by the Federal Government is a calamity and hardship greater than it has ever been in the power of a belligerent nation to impose on neutrals at amity with her. Several causes tend to render this blockade one of a most severe and rigorous character. While the fewness in point of numbers of the Southern ports, and the total want of a Southern navy, enable the Federal Government to keep up an effective blockade without any difficulty, the immediate contiguity by land of the blockading people on the north, and the rude and uncivilized condition of Mexico, the country contiguous with the blockaded people on the south, put out of the question all possibility of any evasion of the blockade by land-carriage. A complete stoppage has been put to trade in an article which is second only in importance to food for millions of the inhabitants of neutral countries. It is to be hoped, in the interest of humanity, that no belligerent nation will ever again be permitted to expose innocent neutral nations to so unprecedented and so dreadful a calamity. Public apathy is at last becoming roused to the whole question of commercial blockades both in theory and in practice, and one or two meetings have been lately held where it has been much discussed. The Chamber of Commerce of Liverpool has, on the motion of Mr. Spence, as we see, negatived a proposal for their abolition by a majority of nine. Unless our recollection fails us, that body, notwithstanding its imposing commercial name, has been on more than one occasion rather behindhand on the great questions of the day, and its deliberations have oftener than once shown that it did not thoroughly understand its own and its country's interests. We reserve to ourselves the privilege of accepting this vote for what it may be worth in our opinion, and our views are much strengthened by seeing the letter of Mr. Ewart, the acute and intelligent member of Parliament for that town, and by the recollection that his colleague, Mr. Horsfall, shares his opinions.

The Juridical Society, a society of barristers, has lately had the same subject before it for discussion on two occasions, and both the meetings have been held under the distinguished chairmanship of Lord Stanley. The subject was introduced, about three weeks ago, to the society by an able

paper of Mr. Westlake's, in which he traced the whole history of commercial blockades from their origin, in the latter half of the seventeenth century, down to the present day. There can be no doubt that the word blockade originally conveyed the idea of investment. In an early treaty between the Dutch, who were at that time the chief maritime, and therefore blockading Power, and the Algerines, which bears date 1662, blockade is spoken of as a siege, in regular form, either by sea or land. In other words, blockade could not at that time be extended to unfortified or ungarrisoned towns which made no attempt to offer any resistance by sea to the maritime force. In accordance with this principle, Napoleon, in the fourth article of the preamble to the Berlin decree in 1806, complained that "Great Britain extends the law of blockade to unfortified towns and commercial ports, to harbours and the mouths of rivers, though, according to right reason and the usages of civilized nations, it is only applicable to strong places." In a subsequent treaty, bearing date 1667, and made between the Dutch and the Swedes, we find blockade limited to places invested by land. Lawful blockade, in the words of the treaty, is only of "fortresses, towns, or places having military garrisons, so long as it shall happen that they are under siege or attack by an armed force, with the intention of reducing them into the power of such force, and in respect of places situate on the coast, by land as well as by sea." Notwithstanding, however, the language of these treaties, the Dutch were the first to introduce, a few years after, the present system of commercial blockades, which has been adopted and carried into effect, up to our own day, by every maritime nation, and by none so much as ourselves. Singularly enough, Mr. Cass, Secretary of State under the Presidency of Mr. Buchanan, so lately as 1859, made a proposal, which was thus expressed by Lord John Russell in the House of Commons on the 18th February, 1861:—"General Cass considered that the right of blockade, as authorized by the law of nations, was liable to very great abuse; that the only case in which a blockade ought to be permitted was when a land army was besieging a fortified place and a fleet was employed to blockade it on the other side; but that any attempt to intercept trade by blockade, or to blockade places which were commercial ports, was an abuse of that right that ought not to be permitted." "My answer," proceeds Lord John Russell, "to that despatch was simply that, as the war had ceased, and the treaty of Paris had been concluded, it was not advisable to continue that discussion." The results of the unfortunate rejection of that proposal are now too evident and manifest; but the minister did no more than express the sentiments of the assembly he was addressing. It is perfectly idle and unwarrantable in Mr. Spence to pretend to say, as he did at Liverpool, that if these principles had been acceded to, the Washington Government would have found ready excuses not to carry them out on the present occasion. He may, perhaps, mean that the Federal Government would still have attempted to close the Southern ports under a claim of sovereignty, by virtue of their municipal jurisdiction, and through an Act of Congress; but the great neutral Powers could not, after their recognition of the South as belligerents, have permitted the Federal Government to do, by virtue of its municipal authority, an act which it was bound by treaty not to do under its belligerent powers. So flagrant a violation of the spirit of a solemn treaty could never have been patiently submitted to. For this reason must dissent from Mr. Spence's views on this subject.

Unlike the Chamber of Commerce of Liverpool, the Juridical Society never takes a vote on the subjects which come before it: its object is to elicit opinions and to promote discussion, and not to count either heads or hands; so that, perhaps, it would be rash to say to which side the feeling of the meeting inclined. We venture, however, to think, that had the commercial gentlemen heard the sensible speech of Mr. Phinn, Q.C., who, from his former official experience at the Admiralty, was able to speak with some weight, one or two, if not more, members of the nine who formed the majority at their deliberations might have been found in the opposite scale. Mr. Phinn pointed out with great force the difficulty, if not the utter impossibility, of maintaining a blockade along the whole line of coast of a country which is densely peopled and has many seaport towns. To take France, for instance, the whole British navy could not effectively blockade the coast of France from Bayonne to Dunkirk; and even supposing it could, the expense of keeping up an efficient fleet of steamers for the purpose would be so great as even to exceed in amount the loss to which the blockade would expose France. Steam, though it has in some respects increased the efficiency of a blockading force, operates in other respects, even at sea, in favour of the blockaded nation. The necessity for constant coaling and the distance of coaling ports, together with the ease with which quick vessels can elude the blockading squadron, under cover of night or during a fog, present disadvantages which at sea countervail nearly, if not entirely, the advantages resulting from the use of steam to a blockading nation. On land blockades have lost their entire force as against such countries as France, Germany, Holland, Belgium, owing to the extension of the railway system throughout the continent of Europe. A blockade of the whole coast of France would, as far as her great trade with the Continent is concerned, be nothing more than a mere *brutum fulmen*; her trade with foreign parts would, instead of going from Havre, Nantes, or Bordeaux, be transferred either to Antwerp, to Genoa, to Santander, to Barcelona, or to Rotterdam *via* the Rhine. The only loss which would ensue to the French exporter would be the difference of the cost of land-carriage to the place of embarkation, which would in no case be large, or even important. Spain will soon have a perfect network of railways in full operation, so that blockade will be soon almost equally

powerless against her as it is against the other countries we have enumerated. Russia is pushing forward her railway system with great activity. Petersburg is already united to Germany by one railway, and will soon be united to it by another, and in a few years more the line from Petersburg to Odessa will be completed; so that, in the event of another Russian war, we should not be able to carry it on with the same advantages in our favour which attended us during the late war. The experience of that war is sufficient to teach us how a blockade can be evaded by land-carriage, when a neutral nation is contiguous with the blockaded people. Immense quantities of goods, it is well known, were sent from all parts of Russia to Memel, the nearest Prussian port, and were shipped there instead of at Riga. But we are very much inclined to doubt whether blockade has ever been as important an element in aggressive war as many are inclined to suppose. The peculiar features which characterize the blockade of the Southern ports have been already mentioned. Matters would have been very different, had the South been the blockaders and the North the blockaded people; for all the produce of the North would in that case have had a free exit through Canada. The contiguity of a flourishing country would have deprived the blockade of half at least, if not of a much greater share of its hardships. The presence of an immense invading army on their soil must not be forgotten, in estimating the straits to which the people of the Southern States have been put. Effects, which are in reality due to this cause, must not be attributed to the blockade, and cannot be forgotten by those who wish to form a correct estimate of blockade as a means of aggressive war. Our blockade of France during the wars of the Revolution ruined, it is true, the colonial and continental trade of that country, but did not do much in bringing the war to a close. France was twice conquered by means of an overpowering army by land in the course of two years; the blockade, which was continued for ten years, had very little effect in bringing the war to a successful termination. Great countries are not to be overcome by the stoppage of their ocean trade; the presence of a powerful enemy on their soil, and the exhaustion of their resources in bringing up men and supplies in trying to beat him off, are the only causes which force a great country to sue for peace. The blockade of the Russian ports might have gone on for years without bringing the war to a close; it was the occupation of the Crimea by an army which was the real cause of exhaustion of the resources of the empire, and of the peace, after a war of less than two years.

In the first of the two meetings of the Juridical Society, Lord Stanley, without pledging himself to any opinion on either side of the question, observed that there were three questions which must not be lost sight of, before an opinion could be formed on the subject. 1st. Whether the abolition of commercial blockade would not have the effect of equalizing the powers of the combatants, and enabling them to continue the contest? 2ndly. Whether the proposed alternative would not have the effect of taking away the inducements of neutrals to bring about a peace? and 3rdly. Whether it would not diminish the interest of the people of the belligerent countries in asking for a cessation of hostilities? We should be exceeding the limits set to us were we to enter into the discussion of these three points; but we venture to think that none of them carries any great weight, either in practice or theory. The intervention of neutrals in the wars of their neighbours is but a thankless office, and all our previous experience leads us to shun the office. Public wars are in some respects like family quarrels; the man who does not wish to bring on himself the enmity of both, must keep aloof from aiding or abetting either. The inducements held out to neutrals to endeavour to bring about a peace could, under no state of things, be smaller than they are at present under the old system. We, for our parts, do not think, on the whole, that the cause of peace would be a loser by the equalization of the powers of the combatants; it is more probable that wars would be less frequent under such a state of things than that they would be indefinitely prolonged when once commenced; and we do not find that the great sufferings and hardships which the people of the Southern States have had to endure, have been in any way instrumental in exciting among them a party for peace. The maxim that wars are made shorter by being made more terrible to the belligerents, is inhuman and barbarous in practice, while our experience of the present war shows that it is false in theory. We venture also to think that the remarks we have made on commercial blockades, as a means of aggressive war, are by no means inapplicable to the first and third of the points, as suggested by Lord Stanley.

The chief and most popular argument which is usually put forward against all alterations in the belligerent rights, is "our maritime supremacy." We need, it is true, a large naval force to keep our shores free from the pollution of the feet of an invading enemy; but in any future war we must make use of our maritime supremacy with discretion and moderation. "Nothing has, in fact," as Mr. Westlake truly observes in his pamphlet, "endangered our naval supremacy so much as our blockades. They produced three armed neutralities, in 1693, 1780, and 1800, from the last of which we were delivered by the death of the Emperor Paul; and in the great war with the French empire they would have produced an armed neutrality more formidable than any previous one, but for the sympathy which Europe felt with us against the imperial conqueror." It is our policy as well as our duty to administer the law of the sea with as much liberality as possible, if we contend for our old doctrine of dominion over it, or we may find the whole world arrayed against us.

In these remarks it has been our chief desire to direct attention to the fact, that blockade alone, without any accompanying land operations, has never been so important a machinery of aggressive war as has been usually supposed; but that, whatever its efficiency may have been once, its importance has shrunk into much smaller dimensions in consequence of the great extension of the railway system. We venture to think that reflections of this sort may induce our statesmen to agree to some modification of the law of blockade as at present existing, without the fear that our real interests, even in time of war, would be much affected.

THE PROGRESS OF TASTE.

AMONG the Greek coins prized for the beauty of their workmanship, none are more famous than those called the medallions of Syracuse. They owe their name to the belief that they could only have been made to be given away as royal presents. But they are simply pieces of ten drachms, and passed in the fish-market of the Sicilian capital. Yet no modern artist has reached, even in a gem, the beauty of their designs. They are by no means exceptional. A discriminating student discovers works much finer in the coinage of small towns of Greece, some scarcely known to history. It is the same with all the products of Greek art during its best ages. They are marked by an equable excellence that is perplexing to a modern eye. No doubt the same elegance characterized the life of the Greeks. If we may judge from the vases and sculptures, the slave wore his scanty cloak with the dignity of a general who had dictated terms to Persia. This, perhaps, is why the great philosophers are accused of foppery. It was merely that Pythagoras, Plato, and Aristotle were men of taste, and were attacked by the Cynics for not being eccentric, but like their fellow-citizens.

The Greeks do not stand alone. Look at Arab art. In Cairo you may hire, for a guinea a month, a house of the style of a hundred years ago, built, if large, for a Memlook Bey, if small, for a merchant who had a precarious trade with Constantinople or Venice, in either case so well fitted with lattice-work, mosaic fountains, and carved ceilings, in a pure and consistent style, that no English nobleman could, for a year's income, produce such a realization of the Thousand and One Nights. The same is the case with Gothic art, which, indeed, the moderns have imitated, but only by keeping very close to the pattern, and with a great lack, as in all copies, of sound vigour.

Our independent modern work shows no such evenness. It is irregular and uncertain, so that some have doubted whether the taste which comes by education can ever be as safe a guide as that which appears to be instinctive. The true way to judge what our own time has produced is not to measure it by what is comparatively a standard of perfection, but to see whether its own history tells of any steady progress. And here the International Exhibition is of great service, as the advancement of taste was one of its main objects, and the comparison of its contents with those of its predecessor supplies exactly the instance that we want.

In speaking of the progress of taste as one of the objects of the Exhibition, we do not refer to its special art portion, which was no part of the Exhibition proper, having no direct connection with industry. No doubt painting and sculpture have a relation to the general condition of taste, but it is one that is rather apt to confuse than to guide the judgment. Artists of the first eminence have been produced, like Hogarth, Reynolds, and Gainsborough, in times when taste was at the lowest, because nothing can crush a really powerful genius; but they have, since the great Italians, with scarcely an exception but Flaxman, so entirely confined themselves to their special arts that their influence on general taste has not been direct or apparent. The progress of taste can most clearly be seen in the form and decoration of common things, the works of industry, all of which, save those which remain in the condition of raw materials, are objects on which taste may be exercised.

At first it seems difficult to compare the two Exhibitions at this distance of time and with no better aid than the Illustrated Catalogue, but a little effort of memory enables any one to compare a house, which is but an Exhibition *in parvo*, of eleven years ago, with one of the present year. The change is evident everywhere, from the carpets to the ceilings. There are barbarisms here and there, mirrors of corrupt but quaint form, old china, and eccentric chairs, but in the whole there is little to offend the eye. No one would now think of painting the siege of Troy upon the ceiling, or crowding a small room with tables enough to fill a broker's shop. Some, indeed, have left off buying their ancestors in Wardour-street, and have even discovered that fine architectural photographs are better than second-rate pictures. This reform had well begun eleven years ago, but it was not so forward as now, and a multitude of examples of bad taste, now no longer tolerated, were then admitted into the Exhibition itself. Let us take a last survey of the Exhibition of 1862, and speak of it once more in the present.

If we begin with English taste, we observe more excellence than elsewhere, and yet more inequality. In china and porcelain, it is unaccountable that instances of beautiful colouring should be mixed with inharmonious imitations of older styles, alone tolerable in the originals for the skill of their designs. In form we certainly show some improvement. The angularities and sharpnesses of former styles have almost disappeared; and though the shapes are not always, scarcely often, in good proportion, their lines are flowing and not broken. Proportion and the composition of form are

perhaps, the most difficult matters connected with taste. Often innate, as in Sir Christopher Wren's case, they seem rarely to be acquired; for we see the best architects constantly erring in these particulars. It is noticeable that in Greek vases, decay is first seen in the proportion, then in the ornament, then in the colour, and last of all in the composition of form. The same principle is generally true in other classes of objects, except when some special influence throws the whole weight of interest, for instance, into ornament or colour. Thus the Italian Majolica owes its beautiful subjects to the popularity of painting, and the French Sèvres its fine colours to the rich taste of a luxurious court. We should do well in proportion and composition of form if we adhered to the Greek models, which are so various that they would not involve us in mere copying. The Arab treatment of these matters is as happy, and far bolder; but it requires a firm judgment to take the same course, which, from the complex nature of the examples, can only be done independently. Arab mosques of the best age are quite perplexing to the modern eye accustomed to rectangular proportions. If square spaces offer, they are square; but the most intricate spaces are accepted without hesitation, and triumphantly filled up with results that show not the slightest indication of adaptation. Our English colouring is generally good, but timid, though some of the imitations of what is crude enough at the best in the Italian pottery drives the eye back to the softer tints, which seem generally preferred. In the mixture of colours, taste is improving; but it is surprising that the very first principles should sometimes be disregarded, as we constantly perceive in carpets. The ornament is of very unequal merit. The Schools of Design have certainly done much for the diffusion of truer principles than formerly obtained, but still the best surface-patterns are mere stereotyped repetitions of the same subject, with no more design than a field of fleurs-de-lis in a coat of arms. No one would employ any artist but Mr. Owen Jones or Mr. James Wild to paint an arabesque upon the walls of his drawing-room, because there are no other artists who could execute such a work, though there are many who could paint more beautiful, but far less appropriate panels or medallions. Our wood-carving is sometimes excellent in work, but generally poor in design; and, indeed, furniture throughout shows a want of vigour. With much that is unsatisfactory, our side of the Exhibition affords great promise in what is really good; it is untouched by false taste, and therefore does not show any indications of decay.

The French Court, making all allowance for the advantage of an eclectic exhibition, surpasses in its taste any other part of the Exhibition, and shows, perhaps, most progress since 1851. In this case the art and industrial sections most remarkably illustrate each other. In the French picture-gallery you are struck by admirable drawing, a love of show and display, and a constant imitation of Roman models. The attachment to Imperial Rome is, indeed, quite a problem to Englishmen and Germans, whose sympathies are far more with ancient Greece. Throughout the French Exhibition, this Roman taste is predominant, though some designers have had the courage to look further, and borrow their ideas from the purer examples of that art from which the Roman sprang. The proportions are generally faulty, figures (we do not speak of statues), vases, and objects of furniture, being too high for their breadth; yet there is little that is distressingly wrong. Colouring is for the most part good, though, perhaps, occasionally a little too brilliant. Designs and patterns are better than ours. The figure-drawing shows a knowledge of nature and an accurate study that is quite surprising, when, as it often is, bestowed upon objects of no great cost. The technical execution, though lacking solidity, is remarkable for delicate finish. There is a greater air of work for love here than anywhere else, and in this lies the hope of French art; in its Roman tendency is the double danger of its never advancing far beyond the high degree of merit at present attained, and of this element of weakness speedily producing decay.

Germany, with all its ingenuity and patience, is far more backward in taste than France and England, and this is remarkably at variance with its position as to art. German art, however inadequately represented at the Exhibition, is stronger and more wholesome than any of its rivals. German industry, as far as taste is concerned, is weaker and more undecided. There is, indeed, a great difference between the industrial products of Prussia and Austria, but this is mainly because Prussia keeps to old styles, whereas Austria unsuccessfully imitates France. Yet, on the whole, the Austrian taste is more agreeable than the Prussian, as it is less heavy. Among the more pleasant objects we must specify the glass, both Bohemian and Bavarian, though we can only praise the rich colours of some pieces, and regret their heavy forms and want of good patterns. The Austrian book-binding and leather-work is frequently beautiful, though not equal to the French. The book-binding, indeed, in the French division is quite marvellous, and almost surpasses the work of the middle ages.

Those states that are less fully represented than England, France, and the German powers, are either beginning to develop their industry, or scarcely alive to the importance of the Exhibition. Yet we can draw one broad distinction that hints at a geographical aspect of our subject. The northern nations show least taste, the southern most. In the exhibitions of Italy and Spain, amid very much that is weak and poor, we perceive little that is contrary to good taste. In Russia, the Scandinavian kingdoms, and Holland, the balance is on the other side. The nearer Oriental States, Turkey and India, show good but stationary taste; the further, China and Japan, bad taste in the same condition.

If we suppose that natural taste depends, to a great degree, upon geogra-

phical, that is, climatic conditions, it becomes a question how far nations, naturally devoid of this faculty, or endowed with it in but a low degree, are capable of receiving it by education. We think that the Exhibition answers this question satisfactorily, for the improvement in our own taste during the last eleven years can be traced to known causes, and those are mainly educational. And there is much hope in this improvement; for it has not only been steady, but has also shown no indications of the effect of local influences, which, indeed, the extent of the empire and the moving habits of the educated classes have nearly extinguished.

There is as yet a great lack of good works upon this subject, which is due to the laborious inductive process that is necessary before such works can be attempted. The best, though it mainly deals with but one branch of the subject, is Sir Gardner Wilkinson's on "Colour and Taste," from which we only differ in thinking that the writer lays somewhat too much stress upon primitive colours, the predominant use of which tends to produce disagreeable effects, either too dark or too glaring. This is a natural consequence of the position of the question, and it is great praise to say, as we truly can, that as far as it goes, the work is thoroughly correct.

If we may close with a practical suggestion, it seems desirable to adopt some plan which should at once further the progress of taste, and indicate the degree of that progress. An annual exhibition of manufactures connected with taste, with an award of medals, would meet this object, if only it could be kept within moderate bounds. The Society of Arts might well undertake such a project, which would very properly fall within its domain, as the artistic excellence of objects of industry has very much to do with their success. Let us not rest contented with our present condition. There is much that is false and incorrect to be removed; there is also enough soundness and truth to encourage us to better efforts. Another eleven years may see us much nearer to pure taste, since we have advanced so far without nationally turning aside into mannerism, or falling back into error.

THE PAST WEEK.

THE removal of General McClellan from his command, which we announced last week, is commented upon in our first article. Since the date (Nov. 11th) of the mail which brought us that information, no later American news reached us till yesterday afternoon, when we had an arrival from New York of the 18th. We now learn that the new Federal Commander-in-Chief, General Burnside, has changed his base of operations to Acquia Creek, whence, it is supposed, he will advance to Richmond by way of Fredericksburg. General McClellan is urged to become Democratic candidate for New Jersey in the senate. The Confederate governor of North Carolina, having been invited by the Federal governor to resign his powers, has referred him to the Confederate Government at Richmond, declaring, at the same time, that the Southerners will fight to their last drop of blood.

European politics have not this week been marked by any decisive event. The growing chances of Prince Alfred's election to the throne of Greece, and the comments of French semi-official newspapers thereupon,—the publication of Prince Napoleon's essay, or rather his collection of historical documents, on the Pope's temporal power,—and, lastly, the debate, not yet concluded, in the Italian parliament, which seems likely to overthrow the Rattazzi ministry,—these have been the principal topics of interest in continental affairs. The Austrian government has complied with the resolution of the Chamber, as to a small reduction in its budget, though it will not diminish the strength of its army in Italy. The King of Prussia continues to address deputations, and to protest against the parliament which he has unconstitutionally set at defiance.

An instance of monstrous cruelty and injustice in the treatment of prisoners in France, has just been exposed. A young woman named Rosalie Doise, a Belgian, was tried two years ago, in the department of the Somme, for murdering her father; and, being convicted upon her own confession, was sentenced to penal servitude for life. A year afterwards, however, two other men, arrested for another murder, confessed that they, and they alone, had murdered the father of Rosalie Doise. A new trial is, therefore, now going on, the sentence upon her being annulled by the Court of Cassation. She is asked, in open court, why she, being innocent, admitted her guilt when privately examined by the *juge d'instruction* preliminary to the former trial. She says that the interpreter who was employed in that examination, as she cannot speak French, threatened her that she should be shut up in a sort of Black Hole if she refused to confess; and that being pregnant—she is a married woman—she resolved to declare herself guilty in order to save the life of her child. She had actually been shut up in this cell, which was about eight feet in length, width, and height, with but one opening, the size of a brick, to admit light and air from a narrow passage outside. For six months she was confined there, and only let out twice. In the day-time, when her mattress was removed, she lay on the tiled floor. She suffered much pain, and her mind became deranged, when they put a strait waistcoat upon her to prevent her from doing violence to herself. The gaoler frequently urged her to confess, telling her that if she did she would be let out of the cell. The interpreter admits that during the private examination he did threaten her with being confined there again; and he says that, in so doing, he literally interpreted the words of the *juge d'instruction*. She has now been acquitted and set at liberty. A subscription for her benefit has been commenced by M. Odilon Barrot.

The China mail brings an account of a murderous outrage in Japan. Three English merchants, Mr. Marshall, Mr. W. Clarke, and Mr. Richardson, with Mrs. Borradaile, sister to Mr. Marshall, were riding on horseback from Yokohama, where they resided, to visit a temple at Kawasaki. They met a Daimio, with his guard of two-sworded henchmen, about 200 in number, who signed to them to turn back. They had no sooner obeyed than they were ferociously attacked. The three gentlemen, being quite unarmed, could not defend themselves or their female companion. They were all wounded

with sword-cuts, and Mr. Richardson was killed. Mrs. Borradaile had to ride for her life. It is alleged that Colonel Neale, the British *chargé d'affaires*, has been remiss in enforcing the punishment of this outrage.

The Court of Queen's Bench has granted an order, under the Common Law Procedure Act, to dispense with personal service of a notice of action upon M. Billault, the late Minister of the Interior of the French Empire, at the suit of Mr. Serjeant Glover, late proprietor of the *Morning Chronicle*, who has likewise sued the Count de Persigny, jointly with M. Billault, for the sum of £14,000, claimed by him on account of work done, materials provided, and money expended in their service. Notice of action having been served on the Count de Persigny, when he came over to see the Exhibition, he has pleaded in denial of the cause of action. Both he and M. Billault declare in their affidavits that they never agreed, that they never employed or authorized any person to agree with Mr. Serjeant Glover for using the *Morning Chronicle* as the organ of the French Government; while Mr. Serjeant Glover, on his part, swears that at Paris, in 1857, he had several interviews with M. Billault, who acknowledged this agreement, made here by certain persons on his behalf; and who frequently afterwards, through his private secretary, M. Albert Bouard, gave instructions for the writing of articles to further the views and objects of the French Government. M. Billault admits that his private secretary "may have officiously (unofficially) given to the plaintiff, as to the agents of other foreign newspapers, some indications for his newspaper, which the plaintiff was incessantly and gratuitously placing at the service of the French Government." The Lord Chief Justice and the other judges were all of opinion that the alleged contract made in England was sufficient cause of action to be tried by a jury in this country.

Two of the Lancashire unions, Preston and Blackburn, have obtained leave from the Poor Law Board to borrow money in aid of their rates, their expenditure for the quarter ending Michaelmas last having exceeded the rate of 3s. in the pound per annum on the rateable property in those unions. The controversy upon this painful subject still goes on. Mr. Hugh Mason, a well known public-spirited manufacturer at Ashton, supplies, in answer to the Rev. C. Kingsley's challenge, the statistics of poor-law relief and rating in that place. Out of a population of 34,500 in the borough, there are 12,552 persons now receiving from the guardians a weekly allowance of 1s. 4d. per head. At the present rate of expenditure, the charge on the rateable property of the borough is at the rate of £47,379 a year. The annual value of the rateable property is £74,880, from which, by the estimate of Mr. Farnall the inspector, one-third must be deducted for insolvent property, so that a rate of 19s. in the pound would but just raise the amount that is needed for a year's expenditure, as it is now going on. In March last a rate of 1s. 6d. was paid; in October, another rate of 1s. 6d., and now a rate of 4s. 6d. is being levied, making 7s. 6d. up to this time. The guardians of the union and the overseers, after expending large balances which they had at the beginning of the year, are now obliged to go several thousand pounds in debt. Besides this expenditure by the poor-law authorities, the Relief Committee at Ashton, supplementing the guardians' allowance of out-door relief with an addition of 50 per cent., expends weekly above £1,000, raised chiefly by local subscriptions, with the aid of grants from the London Mansion House Fund. These statistics apply to the borough of Ashton; but Mr. Farnall states the present expenditure of the union at 9s. in the pound on the nominal rateable value, or 12s. on the property from which rates can be recovered. In Accrington, a rate of 3s. has just been laid, which the guardians calculate will last only four months. In Stockport, two rates have been levied this year, amounting to 7s. 6d., and a third of 5s. will be required at Christmas. On the other hand, it has been pointed out that in some of the Lancashire and Cheshire unions, the land, which has profited immensely by its proximity to the cotton towns, is paying no heavier poor-rate than perhaps a shilling in the pound. One-third of the rateable property of those counties is situated in those unions, which, containing no factory population, are not directly affected by the present distress.

The Liverpool Chamber of Commerce has been debating the question of belligerent rights at sea. A memorial to her Majesty's Government in favour of the abolition of commercial blockades was rejected, after some discussion, by a majority of 23 votes against 14. Mr. James Spence, the well-known advocate of the Southern Confederacy, led the opposition in this debate.

We have not yet done with the Glasgow murder. The attorneys for old Mr. Fleming wrote to Sir George Grey, when he had respite Mrs. M'Lachlan, and asked him to declare that his decision "was not intended to lead to the inference" that Mr. Fleming was guilty of the murder. Sir George Grey, in reply to this application, declined to express any opinion on that point. The attorneys, or "law agents" as they are called in Scotland, then asked him to order a renewed investigation, to be held in public, so as to afford Mr. Fleming an opportunity of clearing himself from the imputations against him. Sir George Grey answered, that the late investigation had satisfied him that all the facts of the case were not before the jury at the trial, and that sufficient doubt existed as to the share which Jessie M'Lachlan had in the crime, to justify him in commuting the capital sentence upon her to penal servitude for life; but the result of the inquiry was far from removing all uncertainty, nor could it be justly held to fix a share of the guilt on any other person. It was not in Sir G. Grey's power to direct a judicial inquiry into the guilt or innocence of Mr. Fleming, as he was not charged with any offence; especially when, by the law of Scotland, no person after being examined as a witness in a criminal trial, can be subjected to a criminal prosecution in respect of the same matter. Mr. Fleming's lawyers hereupon express their regret, observing that it is generally believed that, in the inquiry ordered by the Home Secretary, additional evidence was brought forward which tended to criminate Mr. Fleming. It is not sufficient, therefore, to say that the result of the inquiry has not fixed guilt upon Mr. Fleming. If it has not criminated him in any way, he is entitled to an express declaration to that effect; if it has criminated him, he should have an opportunity of contradicting it. As the case stands, one-sided witnesses, speaking not on oath, in secrecy, neither subjected to cross-examination nor tested by opposing evidence, have brought most injurious suspicions on old Mr. Fleming. This injustice can only be remedied by giving publicity to the evidence, and affording him a means of contradicting it; it is suggested that this may be done by issuing a Royal Commission. The Home Secretary, however, declines to have any more to say to it.

Private letters from South Africa show that a disagreement has arisen between Dr. Livingstone and the members of the Oxford and Cambridge Mission party. They have fallen back from the station to which he conducted them, at a place called Magomera, in the highlands, because they found themselves involved in the savage wars of the Manganja and Ajawa tribes; and they complain that they were brought into this false position by Dr. Livingstone's conduct previously in seeking out the Ajawa and attacking them as slavers,—an accusation of which, in the opinion of the Rev. H. Rowley, there was not sufficient proof. Dr. Livingstone, on the other hand, says the missionaries lacked energy to maintain their ground after he left them at Magomera. He is preparing to bring up a small steamer for the navigation of the great Lake Nyassa.

The works of the Thames Embankment from Westminster to Blackfriars Bridge have commenced. The foundations are to be laid by sinking huge iron caissons, twelve feet square and fifteen or twenty feet in depth, side by side along the projected line, which is from 200 feet to 400 feet in front of the present high-water mark. These caissons are settled firmly down in the clay, below the bed of the river; they will be bolted to each other, and the empty spaces they inclose will be filled with concrete, and the massive granite wall built upon them, ten feet in thickness at the base, and tapering to three feet at the top. A total area of thirty-four acres will thus be reclaimed from the river-sludge. There will be a roadway seventy feet wide, with two broad footpaths, a tunnel or culvert for the low-level metropolitan drainage, and another tunnel for the gas and water mains; large spaces of land are to be planted with trees, or added to the gardens at Whitehall and the Temple.

Mrs. Norman, of Whaley Bridge, in Derbyshire, the bold woman who shot a midnight burglar a week or two since, has told the story of her exploit, at the examination, before the local magistrates at Chapel-en-le-Frith, of one Matthew Depledge, not the man she wounded in the room, but probably one of those who stood outside the window. She was "feeding baby," when she heard a noise in the lower part of the house. She got out of bed, dressed herself, left her child in bed with her sleeping husband, "having first placed a chair against the bed to prevent the child falling out," took up a loaded revolver which was always kept on the table, and went downstairs. She found a strange man with a lighted candle, and saw two other men at the window. She set her foot against the door to keep it open, took aim at the fellow, steadying the pistol on her left wrist, and fired. The wounded man was drawn out through the window by the other two.

A colliery explosion, by which sixteen men and lads were killed, took place on Saturday morning at the Walker Colliery, three miles from Newcastle, which is one of the oldest there are, having been worked for nearly a century. The accident is supposed to be due to the imprudence of one of the colliers in blasting, or "firing a shot," as they call it, without taking the necessary precautions to ascertain that the passages were clear of gas.

Several of the London garotters have been tried before Baron Bramwell at the Old Bailey this week, and being all found guilty, sentence will be passed upon them in a batch. In the first case, two men, one of whom has already been convicted of felony fourteen times, knocked down Mr. Le Sueur, a medical student, at six o'clock in the evening, in Bloomsbury-street, Bedford-square, breaking all his front teeth, and then running off with his watch. In the second case, a young man who had served two years as a soldier in India, but who had committed several robberies before and after his enlistment, in company with others, attacked Mr. John Roper, a commission agent, while he was walking through Holborn, throttled him, threw him down, and would have rifled his pockets, but that a policeman came up; Mr. Roper, however, was so much injured by the strangulation and squeezing of his chest, that he has since been subject to spitting of blood. In the third case, three men knocked down Mr. W. J. Northcott, at three in the morning in Long Acre, on his way home from a friend's house; two of the men who were tried, one calling himself a smith and the other a tailor, are found guilty of this offence; the smith is a burglar who has already undergone six years' penal servitude, and in his bedstead are found a crow-bar, a life-preserver, and a bunch of skeleton keys; the tailor, also, has several previous convictions on record against him. In another case, Mr. S. Prior, a clerk in a public office, was seized by two men in Cockspur-street, at two o'clock in the morning, struck on the forehead, and dashed violently to the ground. Five or six other men, who have been repeatedly sentenced, for different felonies, to various terms of imprisonment or of penal servitude, were convicted, on Thursday, of robbery with brutal assault, in cases where the victims were first accosted by women. But one of the most audacious attempts yet made is that which took place on Saturday evening, at the top of Sloane-street, where a Mrs. Hartnoll, while waiting for the omnibus, with her husband and two friends, was seized by the neck, in the midst of a crowd of people, and robbed of her brooch; the thief being assisted by several others, who forcibly opposed his arrest. Sentence upon those above-mentioned has not yet been passed; but from what Baron Bramwell let fall, in another case tried yesterday, he seems inclined to give them penal servitude for life.

Reviews of Books.

WORSLEY'S ODYSSEY.*

MR. HENRY, who, some years ago, published a translation of the first six books of the *Æneid*,[†] pathetically described in his preface the difficulty of his task. In the first place, he found that almost every sentence had been previously misunderstood, and afforded materials for a separate commentary. "The reader," he went on, "will perhaps think that, the meaning once ascertained, the transference into English followed almost as a matter of course; he is greatly mistaken; a full half of the difficulty remained, viz., to convert that meaning into English poetry; to express myself so that my sentence should give, first, the true meaning of Virgil; secondly, the whole of that true meaning; and thirdly, nothing but that true meaning; and should, at the same time, be easy, free, natural, and fluent English poetry."

* The *Odyssey* of Homer, translated into English verse in the Spenserian stanza. By P. S. Worsley, M.A. Vol. II. Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London. 1862.

He adds, when contemplating the result of his attempt to comply with these laws, "It will, no doubt, be said that my work is not a translation at all. Very well; I have no objection. There is nothing so very flattering in the reputation of translations that I should be anxious to have my work placed in the same category with them." Mr. Worsley has produced a version of the "Odyssey" which is far from satisfying any such canons, and consequently, perhaps, does not deserve to be called a translation, but which is, in many respects, the best that has yet appeared. It is true that he sometimes fails to give the true or the whole meaning of the original, and that he occasionally gives something more than the true meaning. In particular, he omits or misinterprets many of the multitudinous epithets which are applied with such fine shades of meaning in the Greek epic poems. But he has the great and redeeming merit of reproducing much of the spirit of the poet, and that almost without any admixture of modern thought. Perhaps even his treatment of the epithets may be justified by the consideration that it is impossible to express them truthfully, and that it is better to omit many of them altogether than to overload the version with clumsy substitutes. There is a radical difference between the Homeric epithets and our adjectives. Our adjectives are more abstracted, more general, and therefore fewer in proportion to the facts which we know. They are such as are most convenient for purposes of comparison of ideas, of generalization, of logic. The epithets of the Greek epic are of an entirely opposite kind. There a boundless wealth of words is lavished on single objects. The main intention is to discriminate, not to compare. The inexhaustible store of names is a relic of the same age which produced myths out of the abundance of appellations appropriate to definite things, of that plastic and creative period of language when it was easier to mark a fact by a new word descriptive of its most striking characteristic than by a sentence which compared it with other things, and predicted of it some result of that comparison expressed in a combination of general adjectives. Homeric words were more closely fitted than ours to individual phenomena. It is, indeed, usual to say that the growth of languages tends to desynonymise synonyms, to take words which have been used convertibly and particularize them so that they are no longer convertible. But this is true only when the later stages of language are compared together, and not when the earliest form is compared with the later. There were hardly any synonyms in the Homeric times; so that the tendency to desynonymise comes to this: after the epic age, a great number of epithets dropped out of use. As for the rest, their strict and physical meaning was forgotten, and they came to be considered as having, in many cases, the same sense, as being, in short, synonyms. As the next step, many similar physical epithets came to be applied, in the ordinary progress of thought, to the same moral and philosophical facts. Then, as these moral and philosophical facts began to be divided and distinguished more minutely, so the epithets were distinguished and appropriated to the newly-distinguished facts. Thus, the real progress of language is from an age in which there are no synonyms to an age of synonyms, and thence again to an age in which the synonyms are desynonymised from a different point of view and with a different application. However this may be, there is little correspondence between modern adjectives and Homeric epithets, and there is much to be said for any translator who chooses to regard these as an insoluble problem, and to devote himself to reproducing the general spirit of his original.

This Mr. Worsley has well accomplished. With admirable art he has preserved at once the large scale of the heroic actors and their proportions as among themselves. All the men are still godlike boys, and if the women are not all virtuous, it is only because in modern expression it is more difficult to reconcile immoral conduct with noble character in women than in men. Again, the translator has well preserved the fine shade of difference between the talk of gods and of heroes, which entirely vanishes in other versions. On the whole, there is no translation of the Homeric poems which approaches this in interest for the general reader, apart from the question of its verbal relation to the original text. The last five books are the best, and some passages selected from them will be a favourable specimen of the whole:—

"Scarce had Telemachus the word let fall,
When, lo! Athene 'mid the suitor-throng
Stirred a wild scream of laughter in the hall,
Not to be quenched, and made their mind go wrong.
Smiles not their own writhed hideously along
The lank jaws, and their teeth chewed bloody meat;
Stood in their eyes a ghastly rain, and strong
With anguish in their breast the proud heart beat.
Then cried the godlike seer, uprising from his seat:

"Ah, wretched! what is this? what horrible woe
Comes on ye now? Night folds in dark embrace
Your heads, your features, and your knees below;
Wild cries are kindled, tears are on the face,
Blood stains the walls and each columnar space;
With ghosts the vestibule, the court, doth swarm,
Who towards the far realms of the west space
Strive, with their eyes on Erebus: the sun's form
Dies from the heaven, and falleth a black shadow of storm."
(B. xi. 345-357.)

"He the bow
Strung without pain, and gave the nerve a twang;
And in a low voice beautifully it sang,
Voiced like a swallow."
(B. xxi. 409-412.)

"He spake, and hawser of a blue-prowed ship
Down from high pillar of the dome he let,
Fastened aloft, lest too near earth they dip.
As doves or long-winged thrushes on a net
Strike in a thick bush, when to bed they get,
And find ill-roosting where they nightly throng,
So were their heads caught, and the nooses set
Fast round their necks, to make their misery strong,
And with their feet they writhed a little while, not long."
(B. xxii. 465-473.)

"And Agamemnon's spirit thus replied:
'Now, wary-wise Odysseus, hail to thee,
Who with much virtue hast regained thy bride.
O, the kind heart of pure Penelope!
O, to her first one love how true was she!
Nought shall make dim the flower of her sweet fame
For ever, but the gods unceasingly
Shall to the earth's inhabitants her name
Wide on the wings of song, with endless praise proclaim.'
(B. xxiv. 191-198.)

Lesser faults weigh nothing against the transfusion of so large a portion of the Homeric spirit. Mr. Worsley will probably be to many who have

hitherto admired the "Odyssey" without having understood or even read it, what Chapman was to Keats, the guide to a broader ocean and a new world.

It is curious that whilst the translator has employed the Spenserian stanza, he declares himself the advocate of the hexameter as the proper metre for the translation of Homer. He points out the distinction between the abstract best metre and the practical best, and pleads that though each man must practically employ that metre of which he is most master, yet the hexameter is the ideal for which we must hope. By way of illustrating its practicability, he quotes three passages from Matthew Arnold, Dr. Hawtreys, and Kingsley:—

"But let me lie dead, with the dark earth mounded above me,
Ere I hear thy cries, and thy captivity told of!"

"Clearly the rest I behold of the dark-eyed sons of Achaia;"

"As when an osprey aloft, dark-eyebrowed, royally-crested."

These four verses he conceives to be perfectly rhythmical and to fulfil every necessary condition; and he points out that their rhythmical goodness depends on the use of a spondee in the fourth place, which arrangement he proposes to vary by frequently employing a dactyl in the fourth, followed by a spondee or trochee in the fifth foot. On this it may be remarked, first, that any such tampering with the final rhythm of the verse throws an unpleasant and unnatural emphasis on the beginning; and, secondly, that it is a surrender of the whole principle of the hexameter. The essence of that metre is that it should be dactylic, that the three times should be as often marked as possible; and to impose a necessary spondee in an unusual place is, in effect, to allow that hexameters cannot well be written in English. It is not, however, on the narrow ground of particular feet that this question must be settled. The hexameter is essentially a Greek metre. It is artificial even in Latin, and still more artificial in English. The Greek language was formed on it, Latin slowly adapted itself to it, but in English, owing to the almost entire absence of quantity, it is wholly out of place. English metres depend on accent, and English words cannot bear, as a general rule, the exaggerated emphasis necessary to imitate the quantities of the hexameter verse. Besides, the rhythm of hexameters both in Greek and Latin intimately depends on the caesura, a feature which is wholly wanting in English, as in all languages whose poetry is accentual. It is now too late to train so fully-developed a language to any artificial form. Nor is it easy to say which of the established metres is best adapted for the translation of heroic verse. The Spenserian stanza, notwithstanding the success with which it has been employed, is perhaps too modern in its regular and somewhat melancholy rhythm and cadence. Blank verse is the easiest, and though it bears monotony on its surface, is really the least monotonous for a long poem.

We have said that Mr. Worsley has successfully caught and fixed a large part of the spirit of the "Odyssey." That he has not reproduced it in all its own large proportions is only a necessary consequence of our imperfect knowledge of the Homeric age. An author who writes consciously from one point of view and with one dominant idea, may be perfectly translated because he may be perfectly understood; but the many-sided simplicity of an unconscious epic age cannot be well translated till the character of the age has been thoroughly appreciated. Until some fuller insight has been gained into the character of the Homeric times, we do not expect to see a better reproduction of the "Odyssey" than this, unless Mr. Worsley should happily be enabled to retouch parts of his work with fewer difficulties to contend against.

THE POPE'S TEMPORAL POWER.*

BEFORE examining the contents of the second of these two publications, which bears the name of M. Hubaine, private secretary to the Prince Napoleon, we should notice the first of them, in which the same argument is set forth with greater precision. It contains the speech delivered by M. Bonjean last February, in the French Senate, together with a copious series of appendices, exhibiting the origin and growth of the temporal power, and the judgments expressed upon it by Catholic writers, doctors, and canonized saints, and also by French kings and governments, at various periods of its history, followed by the Encyclicals, proclamations, and other documents emanating from the French and Roman Courts since 1848. M. Bonjean's work travels partly over the same ground as Dollinger's book on the Papacy, which we had occasion to notice some months ago, and lands us pretty much in the same conclusions. If M. Bonjean, as a layman and a politician, naturally approaches the question from a somewhat different stand-point, and delivers his sentence with a more incisive precision than the learned professor of ecclesiastical history at Munich, still he writes throughout as a zealous Catholic; and we hail with especial satisfaction such a work from the pen of a Frenchman and a member of the Senate. The supposed interests of France have unfortunately induced but too many of her statesmen, however far removed from ultramontane sympathies, or when, like Guizot, not even Catholics, to identify themselves with a policy which can only escape the charge of fanaticism by incurring the still darker opprobrium of base and unscrupulous selfishness.

M. Bonjean's speech, which is the text the remainder of this volume is designed to illustrate, is divided into two portions; the first discussing the historical question whether the temporal sovereignty has been more beneficial or injurious to the independence of the Holy See and the spiritual interests of Catholicism, while the second is occupied with the inquiry whether, in its present form, that power is even possible, under the circumstances of the modern world. We need not say that, like Dollinger, Ventura, Passaglia, Lacordaire, and, in fact, all the greatest men of his own communion, he answers both questions peremptorily in the negative. It is indeed remarkable that, while the ablest defenders of the temporal power are Protestants or unbelievers, the wisest and most devout Catholics in every age have been at best its coldest friends, when not its professed opponents. "The early ages," says Cardinal Fleury, "furnish us with a greater number of holy Popes than the later ones, and the manners and discipline of the Roman Church were then far purer." Yet for the first eight centuries there was not

* Du Pouvoir Temporel de la Papauté. Par M. Bonjean, Sénateur. Paris. 1862.

Le Gouvernement Temporel des Papes jugé par la Diplomatie Française. Recueil de Documents. Paris: 1862.

even the "shadow" of temporal dominion. That was the time when the Church conquered, "not provinces and opulent cities, but souls, hearts, intellects;" when St. Leo, "clothed in the double majesty of the priesthood and of virtue," withstood the triumphant advance of Attila, and St. Gregory reconciled contending princes in Italy, and reclaimed our Saxon forefathers from heathenism, the Visigoths and Lombards from Arianism to the Catholic faith; when the Church planted her foundations deep in the blood of her martyrs, and had not yet learnt, for the greater glory of God, to shed the blood of her own children. With the close of the eighth century, under Charlemagne, commenced that struggle of the Papacy for earthly power which was not destined to find its consummation till the end of the fifteenth, under the saintly auspices of Alexander VI. and Julius II., and with it commenced an era of weakness and corruption for the Church. We need not dwell on the horrible wickedness of the tenth century, when the end of the world was universally believed to be at hand, and when for sixty years three abandoned women filled the pontifical throne in rapid succession with some twenty of their wretched favourites. It is more important to observe that during the period of the highest moral ascendancy of the Roman See, from Gregory VII., at the close of the eleventh century, to the middle of the thirteenth, the Popes were constantly in exile and could hardly call a foot of land their own, though the dark "shadow" of the temporal power was already falling upon them with its ceaseless accompaniment of political quarrels, and that terrible prostitution of spiritual censures to purely secular purposes, which casts so deep a stain on the mediæval Church. In 1150 St. Bernard writes to Eugenius III., the reigning Pope, that, if he wishes to combine civil and spiritual powers in his own hands, he "will lose both;" and that "neither poison nor dagger are so dangerous for him as the passion for temporal rule." What would St. Bernard have said of Lamoricière with his Irish Volunteers and Papal Zouaves? Two centuries later, at the close of the captivity of Avignon, itself the result of disputes exclusively political, St. Catherine of Siena writes to Gregory XI. that he is not bound "to reconquer the earthly treasures of the Church and her rule over the cities she has lost," but is bound "to reconquer the souls which are her real treasure." It is obvious how exactly her words apply to the Italy of 1862, with thirty-four of its sees vacant and ten thousand of its clergy, representing, of course, a far larger number who are afraid to speak, openly calling on the Pontiff to abandon civil claims which have driven their country to the very verge of schism. Close upon the return from Avignon follows the schism of the Anti-popes, with all its attendant scandals, and then at length, under Julius II., the temporal sovereignty is consolidated. How far from that day to this it has subserved the independence of the Holy See, or the progress of Catholicism, our readers, if they need further information, may discover in M. Bonjean's speech. Suffice it to say here that, while Catholic governments have always been able to use its civil interests, "as a fulcrum" (to quote Dollinger's term) for extorting from the Papacy whatever it was most unsuitable for it to concede, it has had to witness the revolt of about half Europe from its spiritual sway; and if our own days have seen a remarkable Catholic reaction, it has been when the temporal power, though still surviving as a fruitful source of evil, was reduced, under French and Austrian "protection," to the "shadow of a shade." Well may our author exclaim that the Papacy, unlike Antæus, has never touched the earth without loss of strength; that in striving for a temporal kingdom it has lost that moral dominion which was alone its rightful heritage. "*Sujets des Empereurs, les Papes avaient conquis le monde; à peine Rois, les Papes en perdent la moitié!*"

The second part of the speech discusses the actual condition and prospects of the Papacy, and the author lays down as preliminaries that he desires to secure to the Holy Father safety, dignity, and independence; that he should be neither in reality nor appearance the subject of any Italian prince; and that he should continue to reside at Rome. In the words of Father Ventura, he "must reign, but must not govern;" in the words of Father Lacordaire, "civil equality, political liberty, and liberty of conscience," must be secured to his subjects. And these ends, M. Bonjean intimates, can only be attained by a frank acceptance of the Italian kingdom. He gives us one anecdote illustrating the kind of independence allowed to the Pontifical Government by its Austrian protectors; we will add another, bearing more directly on its spiritual office, which happens to have come to our knowledge. Some years ago, Father Rosmini, the saintly founder of the Order of Charity, wrote, under the title of "*Cinque Piaghe della Chiesa*," a little book on the reform of ecclesiastical abuses in Italy. It was shown to Pius IX. in MS., and by his express order published at the pontifical press of Perugia, as Rosmini himself lived under the Austrian dominion, and the writer was informed of his Holiness's intention to make him a cardinal. Soon afterwards came the revolution of 1848, the Pope's flight to Gaeta, and his forcible restoration by foreign arms. The Austrian Government hereupon insisted on the condemnation of Rosmini's book on account of its liberal principles, and it was accordingly handed over to the Congregation of the Index, and condemned with all the unctuous variety of theological Billingsgate for which that "sacred" tribunal—the appropriate creation of Alexander VI.—is so happily distinguished. The Pope signed the decree, but assured Rosmini that he did so with tears in his eyes, and that he was compelled by the same imperious dictation to abandon the purpose already announced of raising him to the purple. So much for the temporal sovereignty as a guarantee of independent action! Another of its many evils which M. Bonjean has touched upon, and which is conspicuously illustrated by the history of the last three or four centuries, is expressed in his complaint that "the Church is too exclusively Italian." It is obvious that an Italian Sovereign must be himself an Italian, and that his advisers must be chosen, mostly at least, from the same nation; and accordingly we find that for the last four centuries all the Popes, with one solitary exception, have been Italians; and at present, out of fifty-six cardinals, forty are Italians, leaving only sixteen to be distributed among the other nations of Christendom. Yet it is, of course, utterly incongruous that the spiritual head of the Catholic Church should be taken exclusively from one of the many nations it represents, and that his councillors should not be selected in equal proportion from all of them. In this, as in so many other ways, "the Pontiff is sacrificed to the prince." The speaker, in conclusion, reminds his hearers of Bossuet's observation, that the revolt of Luther and Calvin was a judgment on the Church for neglecting its necessary reformation, and quotes the almost prophetic words of Father Ventura in 1848, which he justly

desires to impress on those more directly concerned:—"Si l'Eglise ne marche pas avec les peuples, ils ne s'arrêteront pas, mais ils marcheront sans l'Eglise, hors de l'Eglise, contre l'Eglise." Had Ventura been living now, he would scarcely have used the future tense.

The grand arguments urged in defence of the temporal sovereignty, and which are repeated *usque ad nauseam* in the Encyclicals and other papal documents appended to this volume, are that it is essential to the independence of the spiritual power; that the two having been closely associated for at least a thousand years, it is sacrilegious and impious even to think of separating them; and finally, that the Pope is bound, by solemn oaths, to hand down, intact, to his successors the whole of the sovereignty he has received. It therefore becomes important to show that, so far from being a support of his spiritual authority, the secular office of the pontiff has always been a drag upon it; that it cannot be impious to assail what the holiest members of the Church have denounced in every age as a crying evil; and that the Coronation Oath imposed by Pius V. is quite irrelevant to the present question. To the detailed evidence of these points, which he has stated in his speech, M. Bonjean has devoted the greater part of his appendices, and we purpose returning to them hereafter in connection with some other publications bearing on the same subject. But it will be well, in the first place, to notice the various papal documents attached to this volume, extending from 1848 to the present year. It is instructive, and, were the subject of less momentous interest, it would be amusing to trace their gradual variation of tone from the Proclamation to the Romans in 1848, which kindled the enthusiasm of liberal Europe, to the address pronounced last April in the Church of the Minerva, condemning the "anti-social and anti-Christian designs" of "certain miserable priests or clerks," who wished to separate the spiritual from the temporal power. We can only indicate the salient points of the case. As far back as 1832 the statesmanlike genius of Cardinal Bernetti had perceived that the secularization, at least of the Legations, was "inevitable;" but he truly predicted that the Papal Court would never willingly consent to it, and stated, what events have shown to be its line of policy, "*ne pas offrir, ne pas accepter, mais souffrir*." Already, in April, 1848, Pius IX. had felt it necessary to "protest formally" against the war with Austria, and to disclaim any intention of placing himself at the head of an Italian confederation. At the same time, however, he entreated the Emperor of Austria to give up a struggle which could never "reconquer to his empire the hearts of the Lombards and Venetians," and appealed, in the name of Italy, to the principle of "nationality." The next paper before us, an Encyclical of 1859, sets out with declaring, against the "perfidious enemies of the Church of Christ," that the temporal power is "highly necessary for the Holy See," and an allocution of the same date inveighs at great length, and in no measured terms, against the "audacious sacrilege of impious men" who think or act otherwise. Then, too, for the first time, is the plea brought forward, which is constantly repeated in later allocutions, of the Pope's solemn oath against every violation of the rights and privileges of the Church. Yet it only requires a perusal of the oaths prescribed by Pius VII. in 1567 and Innocent XII. in 1692, to perceive that, both in letter and spirit, they are directed against those voluntary alienations of the property of the Roman see for purposes of nepotism, which had been so common a dishonesty of earlier Popes. A similar oath did not prevent Leo X. in 1515 from yielding Parma and Piacenza to France; Pius VI. did not scruple, by the treaty of Tolentino, to resign Avignon to France; the Romagna, Ferrara, and Bologna to the Cisalpine Republic; by the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, Pius VII. freely surrendered all pretensions to Avignon, and gave up to Austria the left bank of the Po. Yet this oath is pleaded in reply to Louis Napoleon in January, 1860, as a reason which makes it quite impossible for Pius IX. to surrender his claim to the Legations! A still stranger argument is used in an Encyclical of the same year, viz., that the states of the Church are the common property of all Catholics; while yet the cause of the "legitimate princes of Italy," unjustly deprived of their rights, is espoused as though of almost equal importance. In the following July the tone of indignation waxes shriller, and we are warned against "the diabolical malice of the sons of darkness, who seek to extinguish every spark of the Christian faith, of virtue, of the natural law itself, of justice, of honesty, and of probity." But if we seek for the justification of this language it seems chiefly to consist in the erection of "Protestant temples" in various Italian cities (is there not one at Rome?), the introduction of civil marriage, throwing open of public employments and schools to Protestants and unbelievers, and the liberty of the press. Yet these damning sins of "modern civilization" are found in almost every other Catholic country. Nor is the language of the Roman Court happier when we come to questions of fact. Thus we are told in one place that the greater part of the towns in the kingdom of Naples have been burnt and destroyed, and in another that the Roman people give daily manifestations of their love for the Government! It is strange, too, to read declamations against the "deadly and pernicious system of non-intervention," and decrees "nullifying and making of no effect" accomplished facts which certainly are not likely to be undone. It is yet stranger to meet with the lavish praises bestowed on the soldiers who had come to fight for the Holy See, and the promise of "peace and eternal beatitude" to those who had fallen. Seven centuries before St. Bernard had said to a predecessor of Pius IX., "*Quid tu denuo usurpare gladium tentes, quem semel jussus es reponere in vaginam?*" The French clergy and laity who petitioned against the temporal power are said to have "insulted religion," while the ten thousand Italian priests who have joined Father Passaglia, are described as "several members of the secular and regular clergy, ruinously led away by a deadly spirit of error and rebellion, forgetful of their vocation and their duties," and this for venturing to demur to the compatibility of the temporal with the spiritual power. Yet St. Bernard had said far more strongly to Eugenius III., "*Planè ab alterutro prohiberis*." We come, however, at last to this definition, in a discourse of March, 1862, that "the Holy See does not maintain the temporal power as a dogma of faith, but it declares it to be necessary and indispensable as long as this order established by Providence continues, to sustain the independence of the spiritual power." As the only means of ascertaining when the "order established by Providence" has ceased to exist lies in the fact of its cessation, this comes to no more than saying that the temporal power is necessary as long as it remains. To inquire how far these official utterances express the real mind of Pius IX. would be an idle and unprofitable

task. It may be probably conjectured that he still retains, so far as he exercises an independent judgment on the matter, the liberal temper which once made him the idol of his countrymen. But, whatever he may think, he is not free to act for himself. The subtle Antonelli, ever ready with some new web of chicanery, the fiery Merode still meditating fresh crusades, the innocent Talbot dreaming of mediæval theocracies, the Jesuits true to the last to that absolutist instinct which has been from the beginning the evil genius of their order,—these and such as these form the *entourage* of his Court and dominate his councils. But, even were it otherwise, no reform, however extensive, would meet the exigencies of the occasion. In his earliest days of liberal enthusiasm, Pius IX. saw, and saw rightly, that a *bonâ fide* constitutional government was inconsistent with ecclesiastical privileges, and refused therefore to admit any responsibility to his Ministers. "Ces conditions, je ne les accepterai jamais." When Louis Napoleon, in his letter of 1849 to M. Edgar Ney, asked for "secularisation of the administration, the Code Napoleon, and liberal government," he asked what it was impossible to concede without subverting the very foundation of papal sovereignty. It is not merely the manifold abuses of the ecclesiastical régime, bad as they are and complicated as they have become since 1815 by the infusion of the meddlesome spirit of French bureaucracy, that require to be swept away. The system itself, not in its accidents but in its essence, is fundamentally opposed to the first principles of modern political freedom. There can be no co-existence of the canon law civilly imposed with the Code Napoleon; no constitutional government under an irresponsible monarch; and, let us add, no united Italy with an exceptional polity enthroned in its capital. The French Emperor may consider that "unity should follow and not precede union," but it is to be wished he were more mindful of his own words, in recognizing the Italian kingdom, that "the Italians themselves are the best judges of what suits them, and that it is not for him, the elect of popular suffrage, to control their decisions."

It is, indeed, true that the Catholic world has a right to be guaranteed against any injury to its religion from political changes in Italy, but it is easy to show that Catholicism has everything to gain and nothing to lose by rejecting crutches which can only support a cripple. The proofs of this, scattered throughout M. Bonjean's volume, and confirmed by the publications of some of the best and ablest of the Italian clergy, we shall take another opportunity of exhibiting. Meanwhile, the subscription of 10,000 of that body to Father Passaglia's protest against the temporal power is a moral fact, of which it would be difficult to overrate the significance. What may be the precise number of the Italian priesthood we are not aware, though, to judge from the number of bishops (237), which gives on an average one bishop to about every 100,000 souls, it is probably much larger than is either necessary or desirable. But as nobody would be likely to sign, except under pressure of strong convictions, while many more who share those convictions would be deterred from signing by fear of consequences, 10,000 signatures must represent a very large moiety of the national clergy, and, be it remembered, of the orthodox clergy. No breath of suspicion has ever fallen on Father Passaglia's loyalty to Catholic belief, of which he has always shown himself an able champion and expositor. Nor let it be objected that no bishops have joined in the protest, for all such movements naturally begin from below. We cannot praise too highly the great and noble-hearted man, who, after being trained in that strictest sect of religious and political absolutism, the school of Ignatius Loyola, has come forward as the spokesman of a large body of his compatriot clergy to utter these heart-stirring words: "Behold, O most blessed Father, from one end to the other of this our Italy an harmonious voice resounds—a voice of religion, of Catholic piety—'Long live the Pope.' But another voice is also heard—a voice of patriotism and of national independence,—'Long live Rome, the metropolis of the new kingdom.'" But we have one remark to make on Passaglia's position relatively to the government. When he commenced his patriotic crusade he was acting in strict alliance with that great statesman, whose loss Italy and Europe still deplore, and who had pledged himself to the faithful fulfilment of his programme, "a free Church in a free State." The promise of Cavour and Ricasoli to indemnify the clergy who might join Passaglia for any temporal losses their loyalty might entail upon them, appears to have been withdrawn by their successor. This is not as it should be. The voice of the 10,000 comes undoubtedly with double force when it is known that, to deliver their consciences, they have risked position, influence, livelihood,—everything, in short, which the world can give or take away. But it is not to the credit of their Government that it should treat with cold indifference those who have so bravely served it.

(To be continued.)

CINCHONAS FOR INDIA.*

OUR notice of Mr. Markham's volume is confined almost entirely to that part of it which relates to those plants of the genus *Cinchona*, which yield the Peruvian bark of commerce, and other nearly allied species, which are destitute of any marked economical value. This is far the most important part of the work. The chapters which relate to the Peruvian Indians, their condition under the Spanish rule, and the insurrection of Tupac Amaru, the last of the Incas, together with other matter, tend only to increase the bulk of the volume, to the destruction of all pretence of unity. They are, in fact, as regards the main subject, to use a well-known Greek phrase, *οὐδὲν πρὸς τὸν Διόνυσον*. We must, however, protest strongly in the outset against the wilful alteration of *Cinchona* to *Chinchona*, *Cinchonine* to *Chinchonine*, and other cognate changes, alterations excessively offensive to the eye, and not creditable to the author either in a common-sense or æsthetic point of view. Mr. Markham long since† stated that he laid no claim to scientific knowledge, and if so he ought certainly to have refrained from tampering with a generally received usage. The fact, however, is, that he is entirely wrong, though he may have the support of Spanish botanists, and the example of one or two good botanical names in other countries to keep

* Travels in Peru and India while superintending the Collection of Cinchona Plants and Seeds in South America, and their Introduction into India. By Clements R. Markham, F.S.A., F.R.G.S., &c. With Maps and Illustrations. 1862. London: Murray. Pp. viii. and 572.

† *Gardeners' Chronicle*, 1862, p. 778. His reference of the *Aracacha*, an esculent root of which specimens were exhibited at the October Kensington Show, to *Conium maculatum*, the poisonous hemlock, is one amongst other instances that this is not his forte.

him in countenance. Almost every Latin word which begins with *ch* is of Greek derivation, and must, therefore, be pronounced with the first two letters hard. The only exceptions consist of such words as *carus*, which are spelt indifferently with a *c* or *ch*, and one or two words of doubtful origin, as *chama* and *chara*, indicative, the one of an animal, and the other of a plant, both of which have a very Greek appearance, though the latter may be Celtic, and if so the *ch* will still be hard. Even Mr. Markham, we should conceive, would not wish the name to be pronounced *kinkona*, which must inevitably be the case if the proper rule of analogy be observed. Such alterations, even when well founded, are often suspicious, though in the present case we can scarcely suppose that the author wished to make botanical capital out of such thin *chin* plaster.

A smart passage of arms took place between a writer in the *Gardeners' Chronicle* in the year 1860, and Mr. Markham, on his return from Peru, the immediate results of his expedition being certainly very small in comparison of the expense which had been incurred. Some of the charges brought against him, or against the promoters of the mission, were not maintained, but the criticism no doubt proved beneficial, and was, we believe, conducive to ultimate success. It is well remarked by the critic above mentioned, that "one of the most indispensable qualities for a public servant is to bear criticism with equanimity. Such at least was the opinion of one of the wisest and most experienced of modern statesmen." Mr. Markham could certainly lay no especial claim to this quality in his encounter of 1860, and in his memorandum dated June, 1862, on Dr. Anderson's report on the subject of the introduction of the *Cinchona* into India, he has not improved in this respect, though he might have been well content to rest his credit on the ultimate results, as evidenced by the present extensive cultivation of *Cinchona* at Ootacamund. Whatever was wrong or unjust in the report might well have been passed by in silence, or at least quietly corrected. His own energy and intimate acquaintance with the *Cinchona* districts and the language of the natives, during his short mission amongst them, as well as his subsequent superintendence in India, undoubtedly were of great importance, but much was done after he left Peru; and he owed a great deal to sharp though by no means unfriendly criticism, and more especially to the help of various kinds he had from Kew, and above all to the judicious advice of Sir W. J. Hooker, without which we have the best reason for believing that the whole thing would have been a complete failure. He was, moreover, especially happy in having such coadjutors as Mr. Spruce and Mr. M'Ivor, the experience and indefatigable industry of the former being above all praise, and the latter being one of the most intelligent servants amongst the many that have been supplied to different parts of the world by that most truly national establishment at Kew.

We are not disposed to depreciate the difficulties which threatened Mr. Markham's expedition arising from the nature of the climate, the desperate condition of the roads, the jealousies of the authorities, or the savage character of the natives, though we think that our author is inclined to make the most of them.* To show, however, that they are not entirely imaginary, which indeed was once hinted publicly, we will give an example from what came within the experience of Dr. Weddell, who will not be accused of exaggeration:—

"The *cascarilleros* of Bolivia lead a hard and dangerous life. They value only the *Cinchona calisaya*, the other species being for them *carhua-carhua*, a name given to all the inferior kinds. Those who carry the bark on their shoulders from the interior of the forests receive fifteen dollars for every quintal, and they also have to carry their provisions and covering for the night. If by any accident they are lost, or their provisions are destroyed, they die of hunger. Dr. Weddell, on one occasion, while ascending the Corico, landed with the intention of passing the night on a beach well shaded by trees. Here he found the hut of a *cascarillero*, and near it a man stretched out on the ground in the agonies of death. He was nearly naked and covered with myriads of insects, whose stings had hastened his end. His face was so swollen as to be wholly unrecognizable, and his limbs were in a frightful state. On the leaves which formed the roof of the hut were the remains of this unfortunate man's clothes, a straw hat, and some rags, with a knife, and an earthen pot containing the remains of his last meal, a little maize and two or three *chunus* (frozen potatoes). Such is the end to which their hazardous occupation exposes the bark collectors—death in the midst of the forests—far from all friends—a death without help and without consolation."

Then, as regards difficulties arising from jealousies, the threats against Henriquez, Hasskarl's coadjutor, were notorious, and Mr. Cross, who was actively engaged in the service, long after Mr. Markham's return to England, writes from Loxa, in November 18, 1861, to the Under-Secretary of State for India:—

"It was further stated to me that the Government of Ecuador had passed an edict prohibiting the exportation of either seeds or plants of the quina tree under a penalty of 100 dollars for every plant and for every drachm of seed. However, after consulting with Mr. Mocatta, I undertook to go to Loxa, and make a collection of the seeds of *Cinchona Condaminea*."†

We will not, however, dwell further on these matters, but proceed to what relates to the *Cinchona* trees themselves and their cultivation in India.

The only parts of South America which yield the Peruvian bark of commerce lie above latitude 19° south, reaching their extreme northern limit in the wooded heights of Merida and Saint Martha in about 10° north:—

"Humboldt remarks that beyond these limits, the Silla de Caracas and other mountains in the province of Cumana, possess a suitable altitude and climate, as well as some parts of Mexico, yet that *Cinchonas* are never found either in Cumana or Mexico, and he suggests that this may be accounted for by the breaks which take place in Venezuela on the one hand and on the isthmus of Panama on the other, where tracts of country of low elevation intervene between the lofty mountains of Cumana and Mexico and the *Cinchona* region of the main Andes.

"They flourish in a cool and equable temperature on the slopes and in the valleys and ravines of the mountains, never descending below an elevation of 2,500, and ascending as high as 9,000 feet above the sea. Within this wide zone

* For instance, he tells of the journey of the plants across the "arctic climate of the Andes," an expression scarcely applicable to 20 deg. Fahrenheit, which seems to be the lowest temperature he experienced.

† Report on the Expedition to procure seeds of *C. Condaminea* from the Sierra de Cajanama, near Loxa, in Ecuador.

grow many species of *Cinchona*, each within its narrower belt as regards elevation above the sea, some yielding the inestimable bark, and others commercially useless. The species of *Cinchona* in their native forests are not only divided from each other by zones, as regards height above the sea, but also by parallels of latitude. Yet this confinement within zones of latitude and altitude is not a constant rule, for several of the hardier and stronger species have a wider range; while the more sensitive, and these are usually the more precious kinds, are close prisoners within their allotted zones, and never pass more than a hundred yards beyond them. All the species are, of course, affected by local circumstances, which more or less modify the positions of their zone as regards altitude."

The valuable species produce five kinds of bark known in commerce as,—

1. Crown barks, or Loxa barks, from the south border of Ecuador, the produce of different forms of *Cinchona condaminea*, or, as some believe, allied species.
2. Red or Chimborazo barks, the produce of *C. succirubra*, the richest of all in alkaloids.
3. Carthagena or New Grenada bark, yielded by *C. lancifolia*, sometimes regarded as a variety of *C. condaminea*.
4. Grey barks, from Northern Peru, the produce of *C. nitida*, *micrantha*, and *Peruviana*.
5. Yellow bark, from Southern Peru, derived from *C. calisaya*.

All of these species are cultivated in the Neilgherry hills varying, according to the last report, from a single specimen of *C. lancifolia* to above thirty thousand of *C. succirubra*.

It requires a practised eye to distinguish the comparatively worthless from the valuable barks, and even these last differ materially in the nature and amount of their chemical constituents, some being rich in quinine, others in cinchonine, not to mention other distinct alkaloids:—

"Grey barks chiefly contain cinchonine and tannin; calisaya, or yellow bark, much quinine and a little cinchonine; red bark holds quinine and cinchonine in nearly equal proportion; while the barks of New Grenada chiefly contain cinchonidine and quinidine."

Happily the effects of quinine and cinchonine are closely analogous. Cinchonine, however, is not so effective in severe cases of fever, though perhaps better as a mere tonic, while cinchonidine is almost equal as a febrifuge to quinine. Where bark is used simply as a tonic, a decoction is frequently more efficient than quinine, probably from its containing a proportion of cinchonine. More than forty years since an eccentric but excellent physician told us that in many cases he combined a decoction with quinine, as it contained something which the alkaloid wanted, though he certainly was not aware of the existence in bark of more alkaloids than one.

It will be evident at once how necessary it was to import plants or seeds from all the principal bark districts, and that the purposes of the mission were by no means completely fulfilled by a visit to any one district, or the introduction of specimens from that district only.*

The plants which first arrived at Ootacamund, under the immediate conduct of Mr. Markham, consisting, we believe, entirely of *C. Calisaya*, were, from various circumstances, in a most unpromising condition, especially as regarded the roots, and though trusted to the skilful hands of Mr. M'Ivor, who was obliged to have recourse to cuttings from the young shoots most recently thrown out, they ultimately failed to strike, though the first report from Mr. Markham was favourable. A second supply was not more successful; but a third, comprising six plants of *C. Calisaya*, from Kew, which passed down the Red Sea in cooler weather, arrived in good condition. The best result, however, was obtained from seeds derived principally, if not entirely, from Mr. Markham's coadjutors, or from extraneous sources. The difficulty attending the growth of the young seedlings was extreme. Mr. M'Ivor shall, however, speak for himself, and we are sorry that we cannot extract the whole passage:—

"The first sowing of imported seeds took place in the beginning of February, 1861.† No certain data being given for their treatment, our first operations were necessarily experimental, and a good number were lost by being sown in a too retentive soil.

"Seeds of the valuable *C. Condaminea*, received on the 16th of February, 1862, were sown on the same day in a very light open soil, composed of a beautifully open sort of sand, with a very slight admixture of leaf mould. Our experience with the first seeds having established beyond all doubt that the *Cinchonas* are very impatient of any access of moisture, particular care was taken in the preparation of the soil used in this sowing. . . . The pots were placed on a slight bottom heat of about 72°. These were never watered in the strict sense of the word: when the surface got dry they were slightly sprinkled with a fine syringe just sufficient to damp the surface, but never to penetrate the soil. Under this treatment the seeds began to germinate very vigorously, and we may fairly hope to rear over ninety per cent of this sowing."

We have not space to enter into the comparative merits of planting under the shade or in the open ground, a matter which has been warmly disputed. When artificial protection can be given from the burning sun in an early stage of growth, there is little doubt that newly cleared ground in which all the roots have been carefully grubbed up, which would otherwise speedily destroy the young plants by the fungi generated on them when decayed, is far preferable. The species which have been introduced into India are for the most part of first-rate quality, Mr. Markham having profited by the failure of the Java plantations, owing to the encouragement of a worthless kind in consequence of its free growth. It is still hoped, indeed, that its roots may give a good supply of alkaloid, but this involves the destruction of the tree; and even should the hope be realized, such a kind could scarcely be recommended for cultivation, unless the less hardy sorts should ultimately fail. There are now some hundred of acres of *Cinchona* under cultivation in the Neilgherries, and there is every reason to believe that we shall soon be independent of Peru for our supply, which is daily becoming more precarious, from the wasteful habits of the bark collectors, though the comparative worth of Indian bark is at present uncertain. Where the trees are barked

* Mr. Markham's visit was confined to the yellow bark regions. Mr. Spruce undertook the expedition to the red bark districts, while Mr. Pritchett and Mr. Cross investigated the grey bark and Loxa zones. The Carthagena district was not visited at all, the single plant of *C. lancifolia* at Ootacamund being derived from Java.

† 1860 is clearly a misprint. "The first batch" of seeds arrived at Ootacamund on the 13th of January, 1861.—See p. 466.

while standing, insects and fungi soon destroy both root and branch; but even where the trees have been properly felled, the roots are sometimes grubbed up for a supply of inferior bark, thus preventing the produce of new shoots to supply the old ones. Such chemical results have lately been obtained from young quill bark that it is probable that it will answer to keep the *Cinchona*-trees closely pruned, a treatment of which many species are by no means impatient.

As the *Cinchona* suffer so peculiarly from continued damp, there is little hope of doing much in the Southern Himalayas. Experiments in Ceylon, under the judicious conduct of Mr. Thwaites, seem likely to be successful.

The daily increasing importance of the bark alkaloids has fully justified the authorities in incurring the great expense which has attended the collection and establishment of the *Cinchona*. It is difficult to say what advantages may not arise from such undertakings. The cultivation of teak is rapidly increasing in favour, though recent reports of its probably early failure have been somewhat exaggerated. We hope that the production of gutta percha, also, will command greater attention, as the supply from the original sources must speedily be exhausted. There are several parts of the Madras Presidency adapted for its culture, and the substance is so extremely valuable, that we can conceive few economical matters to which the support of Government could be more hopefully extended.

Information on other interesting vegetable productions will be found in Mr. Markham's volume; as, for example, *Coca*. An alkaloid has also been obtained from this vegetable substance; but it probably does not contain the whole of its strangely invigorating qualities, as the dried herb retains its full virtues so short a time.

It may be added, in conclusion, that *Cinchona Uritisinga*, one of the Loxa forms, has just flowered in England, under the care of Mr. Howard, to whom we are indebted for such admirable illustrations of the genus, and such a mass of information respecting the characters and qualities of the species. His letter in the *Gardeners' Chronicle*, Nov. 15, 1862, is, like all he writes, well worth attention. *C. Calisaya* (yellow bark), raised from seeds gathered by Mr. Weddell, flowered some years ago in the garden of the Horticultural Society. See "*Journ. of Hort. Soc.*," vol. vii. p. 272, where there is an interesting account of the difficulties attending its cultivation.

RUINED CITIES IN AFRICA.*

THE material magnificence of the Roman empire is nowhere so vividly brought before the traveller's eye as in the Regency of Tunis. Whatever the conquerors of Carthage found of Punic art they destroyed, and in its stead raised such stately structures as still mark their rule in almost every one of the provinces. After them came the Arab conquest, and the gradual return of the whole territory, like the rest of Africa beyond Egypt, save only the coast with its towns, to the wild state in which the Carthaginians must have found it. The ruins have, therefore, been scarcely touched since the seventh century but by the hand of time, lighter here than in Europe, and, as they grew out of no older civilization, so no later civilization has moulded and adapted them. In Italy itself Greek art and that of the Etruscans run up parallel till they meet in the Roman, and scarcely anywhere do we see none but purely Roman monuments. Here the earlier remains, whether those of Cyclopean and Druidical styles, which afford matter for most curious speculation, or the small Carthaginian sculptures and inscriptions, are too scanty and too different from the Roman works to distract the attention. You would fancy that it was amid such scenes as these that the French and Belgian painters of our time studied before they produced those realizations of Roman life which astonished us at the Exhibition.

Mr. Davis's name is already known as that of the most successful explorer of Carthage. He has, indeed, somewhat overrated, as discoverers are wont to do, the value of what he there effected, yet he deserves great credit for having laboured indefatigably amid much discouragement and difficulty, and achieved more success than any of his rivals. Whatever he may write on Northern Africa is deserving of attention as the work of one well acquainted with the country and people, and zealously interested in its monuments. We shall not find fault with him for a want of solidity in his archaeological knowledge if he gives us an intelligible account of what he observed in the journey here chronicled.

The country to which this volume relates is that projection of Northern Africa which corresponds to the ancient provinces of Zeugitana and Byzacena, and to part of Numidia. The Mediterranean washes it on the north and east, giving it a cooler climate than other regions under the same latitudes; on the west is the easternmost part of Algeria; and on the south, the wild country that borders the great desert. The whole region is well watered, and rich in pastures and corn-fields; on its coasts are fine harbours. Hence the opulence of the territory of Carthage when free, and the value of its corn-supplies to Italy under the empire. Now its resources are neglected; under the Arabs, despite their wars with the natives, and their own changes of dynasty, some faint shadow of its former greatness seemed returning, but the baneful rule of the Turks has reduced it to the lowest condition, and nowhere is there a vestige of independence or indeed of true civilization, save in the tents of the Arabs, who themselves are so injured by association with the Turks, that treachery is common and hospitality rare, and national feeling is so far decayed, that they are gradually accustoming themselves to wish for the condition of their brethren in Algeria, who, though under a far better rule, are being forcibly denationalized by an alien race.

Having landed at Tunis, of which he draws a melancholy picture, Mr. Davis paid a visit to the site of Carthage, and then started for the interior. The party was small, and accompanied by an escort of two mounted gendarmes, whose misconduct was a source of perpetual annoyance. They were constantly endeavouring to use the authority of the Government to levy forced contributions even from the poorest Arabs, and everywhere behaved with violence and oppression. Mr. Davis's knowledge of Arabic enabled him to keep them in some check, but he draws a forcible picture of the misery caused by travellers so escorted, who do not understand the language of the country. We are reminded of our experience in the East by the story of a trial, got up by these men for the purpose of extortion, the unexpected con-

* Ruined Cities within Numidian and Carthaginian Territories. By N. Davis. London: Murray. 1862.

clusion of which shows that our traveller had read the Apocrypha to some purpose.

The first important site visited was that of Zucchara, where are two temples, and the head of the great aqueduct which supplied Carthage with fresh water. Far more remarkable were the next striking remains, those at Moghrawah, some distance in the interior, Mr. Davis's remarks upon which are well worth quoting:—

"The ancient remains at Moghrawah are but few, and yet what there is inspires the traveller with a degree of reverence and awe which other ruins do not always do. A sumptuous triumphal arch, a chaste edifice, a graceful column, elaborate ornaments, or exquisite statuary, call forth our admiration, but they limit or fix the period of their own origin. They are associated with a definite age of Rome or of Greece, which classic writers have made familiar to us. We have literature, we have works of art, and we have medals belonging to the same period. The lapse of centuries which has intervened between the recorded past and our day is annihilated, and we find ourselves quite at home among these ruins, and fancy ourselves in the very company of those worthies, those heroes, those sages, those artists who have paced the very ground on which we stand, and who have graced with their presence the very structure which we admire. But to what period do yonder massive stones, planted in the ground by human hands, belong? For what purpose were those monuments raised? Do those immense, rude, and unhewn stones represent the idols of a religion with the nature of which we are totally unacquainted? Are they the remains of a religious edifice? Or have they been placed there to commemorate some particular event in the history of a nation, the very name of which has not even been handed down to us?" (p. 59).

Such silent records of lost nations, more forcibly than any other monuments, picture to the mind the vicissitudes of empires. Remembering how utterly Punic Carthage has perished, so that its most fortunate explorer found no remains certainly of its time of independence, one is astonished to find that before the Carthaginians there was an older race, yet one wholly distinct, whose rude civilization was cut off by the Punic supremacy, of which every trace was in its turn destroyed by the Romans. Only a vision of the past, a retrospective prophecy, if we may so speak, could show us this succession of dynasties, like that the prophet saw from the heights of Moab.

"In outline dim and vast
Their fearful shadows cast
The giant forms of empires on their way
To ruin: one by one
They tower and they are gone."

For a moment we imagine such a sight; another moment, and we see only the massive stones, that are enigmas alike in Britain and in Africa.

After leaving Moghrawah, the traveller visited Roman ruins at Hammam, the most important of which was a triumphal arch, a not uncommon structure here, and next the interesting remains at Mokthar, the ancient Tucca Terebinthina, among the most conspicuous of which was a mausoleum, one of those descendants of the wonder of Halicarnassus which are especially numerous in Northern Africa. At El-Medad, not far beyond, were similar remains and some primæval tombs; and at Thala, the city where Jugurtha kept his treasures, other ruins, some of which appeared to belong to its ancient fortifications. All these monuments yield in picturesqueness to the beautiful Arch of Severus at Hydra, which, though partly inclosed in later masonry, puts its modern rivals to shame, if we may wholly depend upon the sketch in the work. In speaking of this last site, Mr. Davis remarks with some surprise on the lack of Christian monuments in Northern Africa. He attributes this to the effect of Muslim rule; we should rather conclude that here, as in Egypt, finding edifices of the former religion, the early Christians appropriated them, contenting themselves with defacing or concealing the idolatrous figures and emblems. These numerous remains of antiquity were all examined on a single route, terminating just within the French frontier; and the rest of the journey was as much marked by objects of interest. Of these we can but notice one, the most remarkable of all that the traveller describes.

At El-Jem, the ancient Thysdrus, is a Roman amphitheatre, third in size of those yet remaining, ranking after the Coliseum of Rome and the Amphitheatre of Verona, and in beauty second alone to the monument of Vespasian and Titus. The extreme length is 489 feet 7 inches, and the breadth 403 feet 3 inches. Few as are the monuments of the African Church, here we are reminded of its noblest days, and forced to the unwelcome comparison that must always be suggested by a retrospect of the faith and fortitude that has almost come to be thought ideal. Mr. Davis found the Arabs demolishing the structure for tombstones, and persuaded them to desist by pointing out that future travellers would be sure to disturb their graves in search of the fragments of the amphitheatre.

One modern city seems to have greatly interested our traveller, the sacred Keyrawân, which rejoices in no less a relic than part of the beard of Mohammad, and has, until lately, not been visited by Franks save in disguise. Its mosques are of great beauty, and dating from an early period. The sketch given in this work makes us regret that Sir Gardner Wilkinson's drawings of these edifices have not been published.

We have no doubt that Mr. Davis attaches most importance to his account of the monuments; but to our mind the best portions of the work are the descriptions of the population of the country, more especially the half-free Arabs of the interior.

Tunis is under the government of a family who acknowledge the Sultan as their suzerain, and its case, therefore, is the same as that of Egypt. The administration is, however, extremely corrupt, the entire power of the government being in the hands of unprincipled Memlooks, who are either white slaves or renegades, instead of native Arabs. But we must observe that Mr. Davis is not strictly accurate when he compares this system with that of Egypt before Mohammad 'Alee. Under the Memlook sultans that country enjoyed the highest prosperity; on their overthrow an aristocracy of Memlooks was allowed to exercise a joint authority with the Turkish Beglerbeg, and this mixed government naturally occasioned innumerable contests, which were only ended by Mohammad 'Alee's grand act of treachery. After the Massacre of the Memlooks the administration of Egypt was in the hands of white slaves as before, only not of the old party, until lately, the wise association of members of the viceregal family and the moderate views that have rendered Christians eligible for the highest offices, superseded the old system. The consequence, in Tunis, is that

every kind of injustice is perpetrated, and the Moorish Arabs, never famous for the higher qualities of their race, have degenerated so far as almost to be worthy of their Turkish rulers. It was only on the French frontier that real hospitality was tendered everywhere to our traveller, the Algerine Government having very properly given legal encouragement to the Arab national virtue. Hence there is a general wish among the Tunisian Arabs to be under the rule of the French, though their natural repugnance to the race devoid of the dignity and gravity the Arabs most admire, that has conquered their brethren, and the recollection of the Dahra massacre, and the breach of 'Abd-el-Kâder's safe conduct (that fatal snare into which the Wahhâbee chief, 'Abdallah Ibn-Soo-ood, and so many noble Arabs have fallen), still keep up a smouldering hatred of the French, and many an Arab prefers Turkish misrule to Gallic justice.

The writer's knowledge of the spoken Arabic and of Arab character enable him to give some excellent advice to those who may wish to follow him in his interesting journey. On more than one occasion he owed his safety to an exercise of moderate firmness, and he shows how wrong and unwise it is to treat the Arab thief as an assassin. "Anything like an arm of defence in the hands of a European inspires him with respect, and hence a European ought to be very slow in using it. Threaten, and threaten with effect; but, if possible to avoid it, never fire" (p. 76). He might have added that blood once shed, a mortal feud is established, every relation of the man slain, to a remote degree, being bound to take vengeance, unless restrained by accidentally partaking of the culprit's hospitality.

After the volumes of sporting or sentimental rubbish that are annually produced on the subject of Africa, making one wish that the oblivion-causing lotus could be regularly administered to each departing tourist, we are refreshed by the work of a real traveller, who is courageous without feeling it his duty to prove the destructiveness of civilization, who has an eye for antiquities and an enthusiasm for the past, and who, without the fanatical love of Mohammadanism that characterizes some Anglo-Turks, can see the good side of Arab character. Mr. Davis is of the brotherhood of Belzoni and Layard, and we give him a hearty welcome.

MEXICO.*

THE author of this volume makes no secret of the impressions which his journey through Mexico last year has left upon his mind. The original joint expedition he regards as a gross injustice; our own part in it, a blunder, for which Lord Russell ought to be called to account; the French scheme, an absolute impossibility; Miramon, "an unmitigated scoundrel;" Almonte, a fit pendant to Miramon; violent and designing churchmen, the curse of the country. Mexico is perhaps, of all countries, the one which illustrates most strikingly the disastrous results of the selfish, bigoted, and ferocious system, upon which Spain administered her dependencies. The office of Viceroy was sold at Madrid, and regarded, when bought, as a piece of property; all public employments were kept in the hands of Europeans; no cry for redress against the most flagrant injustice ever crossed the Atlantic. Every attempt on the part of the colony towards political freedom was mercilessly repressed, and its commercial development was stimulated or repressed with reference, exclusively, to the interests of the mother state. The country is fertile, almost beyond belief; but its fertility was turned to no account. Native Americans were forbidden, under severe penalties, to have hemp, flax, or saffron; and Humboldt records that, when he was in Mexico, the Viceroy received orders from Madrid to root up all the vines in the northern provinces, on account of complaints urged by the Cadiz merchants as to the diminution of their sales. In the same way, the manufacture of cloth was discouraged by the authorities, and two noblemen, who brought over a number of artisans, found that the government had given secret orders for the ruin of their enterprise, and abandoned it accordingly in despair.

The one purpose for which the country seemed to exist was the collection of gold and silver, and if, says one writer, the horses and cattle of these plains could have performed this office, the inhabitants might have been dispensed with altogether, and the system would then have been perfect. Religion meanwhile added its contribution of tyranny, and a set of ruthless propagators of the faith settled on the fat of the land, and disgraced the name of religion by every species of violence and extortion: even in the chamber of death their rapacity knew no check, and a man who, having paid tithes all his life, died at last without a "*bula de confesion*," had his will set aside, and his property confiscated. The exactions of the civil power were proportionately severe: justice was banished from the courts of law, personal liberty shamelessly infringed upon, and at the taking of Lima the prisons were found crowded with men, long forgotten by the court, and against whom no crime had been assigned. Upon this state of things it was that Iturbide in 1821 founded the first of those transitory administrations, under which the country has for forty years presented the unvarying features of a political lawlessness, personal violence, and a social disorder, almost too extreme to be compatible with the continuance of any civilized community. The author travelled up from the coast to Mexico, and back again to Vera Cruz, and he gives a very lively account of the absolute licence which seemed to prevail everywhere but inside the walled towns and garrisoned positions. The whole country was one great den of thieves, and it was only with the escort of a strong armed force that a traveller could hope to proceed many miles without a descent of brigands,—a rifling of portmanteaus, and probably a little sharp practice with bowie-knives and revolvers. One story which he tells of Havana, illustrates the tone of public opinion which exists on the subject. It appears to be the fashion of the place to invite the captain-general to every ball given by a nobleman. A lady, whose brother had been advised by the authorities "to retire," revenged the family dishonour by omitting the captain-general from her lists of guests. The captain-general sent for the lady and her husband, expostulated against the unusual omission, pointed out that her brother could, if she chose, have a public hearing; but that, "as he held in his hand nine cases of assassination, authorized by him, in his own handwriting, he advised her to let matters remain as they were." He then blandly suggested that she should give a ball the next week, and invite the palace-staff, in which case no more should be said about the matter.

* Notes on Mexico in 1861 and 1862. By Charles Lempriere, D.C.L. Longman & Co. 1862.

Dr. Lempriere draws a gloomy picture of the position and prospects of the French. If, as he believes, they have undertaken to revolutionize the country, they must be prepared not only to occupy the capital, reduce the seaport towns, and maintain intercourse with Vera Cruz by a series of stations through a hostile population, but to maintain, under every possible local disadvantage, a vast system of guerilla warfare against men who are all soldiers or robbers by trade, inspired by a vehement animosity, and accustomed, by an experience of forty-years, to the necessities and excitements of a revolutionary campaign. Since the declaration of Mexican Independence in 1821, there have been no less than thirty-six different forms of government established, and seventy-two individuals have had the doubtful and precarious honour of administering for a brief interval the form of administration that happened for the moment to be in vogue. Civil war is, therefore, the chronic condition of affairs to a Mexican understanding, and it now seems probable that the political unanimity, towards which the nation has hitherto struggled with such ill success, will be engendered in the shape of a deadly resentment against the Government which, under such questionable circumstances, and instigated notoriously by the agents of the hated clerical party, has so unceremoniously marched upon their capital, and inflicted upon a sensitive and fiery race the humiliating inconveniences of a foreign occupation. No such party as the promises of Miramon and Almonte held out, ready to accept the new comers as liberators and to take arms in their behalf, has hitherto disclosed itself; the reactionists have forgotten their lesser animosities and thrown themselves into the patriotic ranks against a foreign invader, and if France is to wipe out the stain of her hitherto unsuccessful arms and to carry matters with a high hand, she must do so against an army of 150,000 expert and determined fighting-men and a population to whom social disorder is no novelty or inconvenience, but whom the idea of European interference fires at once into a blaze of indignation. One of the objects of the expedition, as defined in the original treaty, was to bring about a pacification of domestic factions and to put the Mexicans in a position to decide on their future form of government. That pacification, the author says, has been already attained, for the Mexicans have fraternized against their common enemy, and have, to a man, determined that, whoever else may be their ruler, he shall not be one selected by the first *prêtre*, and secured in authority by the bayonets of a hostile force. The check which the French received before Puebla last June, and their long-continued inability to advance upon the capital, come to be regarded as the mere first-fruits of a struggle which, unless peaceably ended by some such mediation as that proposed by the United States, must assume much more serious proportions before its close. French military returns are veiled in considerable mystery; but there is reason to know that the expenditure of life and material has even now reached a point likely to figure very inconveniently in the next Supplementary Budget, which French statesmen are invited to criticize. An officer, recently arrived in England, informed the author that, out of a regiment of 1,200 men and 40 officers with which he was in June last, there were in August only 400 men and one officer left; on the other hand, the failures of the Mexicans, such, for instance, as that of the attack on Orizaba, have been the natural failures of men unaccustomed to co-operation, or to systematized and regular military service; and it is certain that the distance of Mexico from the coast, and the nature of the intervening countries, must always give great advantages to disorderly hordes of robber-soldiers, who will be watching every opportunity to cut off the supplies, and whom the continuance of the campaign will render still more numerous and daring than at present. Meanwhile Dr. Lempriere thinks that the aggrieved powers themselves have their hands far from clean, and might do something towards strengthening the very infirm organization of Mexican government. For one thing, at all our naval stations on their coasts, there has been for years past a system of impudent and undisguised smuggling carried on by Englishmen, which has not only impaired the revenues of the country, but has tended to foster the general sense of lawlessness, which has hitherto been everywhere the curse of the country. The author himself saw at Vera Cruz the boat's crew of the flag ship laden with bags of dollars, every one of which were completely contraband. The chief delinquents appear to be the British Consuls, who in many cases are not Englishmen, represent no English interest, and merely assume the title for the furtherance of their smuggling schemes, thereby, says Dr. Lempriere, bringing our commercial reputation into great dishonour. These proceedings are, moreover, only a part of a general system of corruption which pervades and enervates every branch of the administration. No Government official will do anything without a *douceur*, and if sufficiently bribed, there is nothing that he will not do. Credits on the treasury cannot be passed without the necessary *douceur*, or the most formal piece of business transacted, without slipping a few dollars into the clerk's hands. Some years ago a set of fine arm-chairs, imported by an English house, were seized for some irregularity in the Custom-house. The merchant expostulated, the Minister of Revenue was inexorable. "Well," said the Englishman, at last, "it is a pity, as they are such very comfortable and elegant chairs; I intended making one of them a present to your wife. I shall tell her how cruel you are." "Don't do that," cried the Minister; "it was very kind of you to think of her, and I must give you the order for their passing." Even the French Minister at Mexico was infected with the prevailing irregularities, and used, according to popular report, to do a very comfortable little business in untaxed carriages, cigars, and millinery from Paris. It would require, of course, a strong government to deal effectually with evils so deeply rooted, and generally prevalent, and it is more by assisting the Mexicans towards this, than by a summary exaction of vengeance for past grievances, that English interests are, the author thinks, to be secured. We may, at any rate, congratulate ourselves upon having withdrawn at so early a stage from an expedition which involves certain expense and possible disaster, and which can lead to no permanent remedy of the evils which lie at the root of all Mexican troubles. French ascendancy, if attained by the means at present at work, would simply imply the ascendancy of the clerical party, and that ascendancy would only foster the general uneasiness, and render another outbreak at no distant date inevitable. It is rather to the establishment of a vigorous, liberal, and determined Government that we must look for the termination of the disgraceful broils which for years past have almost banished Mexico

from the list of civilized communities. The natural resources of the country are such that a few years of tranquillity would enable her with ease to discharge every liability, and it is by no means impossible that the French expedition may have the unexpected result of turning a mob of freebooters and adventurers into a well-organized and patriotic army, and of teaching the Mexicans the lesson they have been so many years learning in vain—that subordination to established authority, collective action, and some semblance of political good faith are not the mere romance of sentimentalists but indispensable necessities of national existence.

THE LAST SENSATION NOVEL.*

It is now some years since the name of "Waters" first became familiar and welcome to readers in railway trains. "Leaves from the Note-book of a Detective Officer" gained a rapid popularity. A second and a third series followed; in fact, it was discovered that a new vein of literature was opened up. The note-books of "barristers" next supplied strange stories of crime and its detection; French criminal officers followed the lead of their English brethren; even the judicial bench in France gave up its secrets. So long as this detective-officer style of literature was confined to one shilling volumes and railway platforms, no great harm was done. It is not, perhaps, very improving reading; but it is sometimes not devoid of interest; and it has no pretension. When we buy one of these shilling volumes we know exactly what to expect. At first the position of this school was not a high one. But it has of late risen in the literary scale. As Becky Sharp won her way into society by dint of powers of attraction unworthy of the stately queens of fashion, so the policeman line of writing was found to possess an interest often sadly wanting to more decorous publications. The multitude of novel writers had worn out every conceivable theme when this welcome discovery was made. Accordingly the criminal novel is now the *mode*. The crime is, of course, a mystery; and the plot is the statement of the means by which the mystery is detected. Mr. Wilkie Collins was perhaps the first to adopt this fashion. But later converts have left him far behind. His stories are always artistically worked out, and generally possess some interest altogether independent of the hidden iniquity. Indeed, in "The Woman in White," the great "secret" was precisely the thing readers cared nothing at all about. Count Fosco was worth all the secrets in the universe. These merits, however, have been found to be quite unnecessary. Nothing is requisite to make a novel, save a crime. It does not greatly matter what the crime may be—forgery, robbery, arson, murder—anything will do which involves consequences sufficiently serious, and which affords opportunity for a great display of energy on the part of some amateur detective. The result is that instead of a dozen criminals, discoveries, and executions from "Waters," in the space of one volume, and for the price of one shilling, we have the detection of only one criminal—without any execution at all,—extending over three volumes, and charged at the exorbitant rate of thirty-one shillings and sixpence.

The book before us is the choicest specimen of this new school which we have yet seen. That no element of Old Bailey attraction may be wanting, the crime is murder, and the criminal is a woman. A little robbery, a little fire-raising, and a little forgery,—all the work of the same lovely and fragile being—are thrown in as suitable adjuncts. And the argument of the whole is to tell us how a novel-reading, cigar-smoking barrister was incited by Providence and a virtuous attachment to become the discoverer and avenger of these crimes. The "secret" of course consists in the said crimes; but however great a secret it may have been to the *dramatis personæ*, it is certainly none at all to the reader. On the contrary, the bigamy, and all the other little frailties to which the bigamy leads, are quite apparent from the very first. There is never any doubt as to the crimes committed, or as to who committed them; and accordingly the sole interest of the book lies in their detection. We cannot say that that interest is "thrilling." In the real detective-stories there are always some difficulties, the overcoming of which calls for a certain amount of ingenuity. Whether this arises from the truth of the tales or from the skill with which they are written is immaterial; but it certainly helps to make them worth reading. Now, in the detection of Lady Audley's crimes, no difficulties occur. All who know anything about the matter answer every question put to them with an alacrity at once convenient and unnatural; and when, in spite of such good-nature, any link is wanting, it is readily supplied by some letter or telegram opportunely turning up. Lady Audley's conduct is unquestionably atrocious, and the reader is never tormented by any uncertainty as to her detection and punishment. We are not, however, condemned to sup on horrors only. Murder occasionally gives place to love-making; the boudoir relieves the Old Bailey. The tender emotion, of course, gathers round the graceful barrister. A beautiful cousin is devotedly in love with him, but he cannot do more for her than bestow "embraces of a brotherly or paternal character." A young lady, with brown eyes and a determined will, exalts him into worthiness of her, and the cousin has to content herself with a rejected squire. But we must, in justice, admit, that the attention of the reader is little claimed by matters so frivolous as these. Putting people out of the world is a theme more affected by this author than the preliminary steps towards bringing people into it.

Such is the plot of the book—bad even of the low order to which it belongs; and we are constrained to add that throughout the whole we find no one redeeming feature. The facts are unreal; the characters are unnatural; the thought weak; and the style tawdry. The unreality of the book goes beyond even French licence—almost every detail is false. Thus the most refined of gentlemen smoke cigars in a lady's drawing-room, and that without remonstrance; Eton boys find their favourite amusement in "fishing for tadpoles in the clear water under the spreading umbrage beyond the ivied walls of their academy;" telegrams are sent, with a noble disregard of expense, beginning "Dear Wilmington," and elicit answers beginning "Dear Audley, ever willing to oblige." These matters may seem trivial, but they illustrate the preposterous absurdity of the whole thing. And as the facts are unreal, so the characters are unnatural. A stern parent, who in Volume II. refuses to speak of his son otherwise than as "that person," is transformed, without any reason whatever, save the exigencies of Volume III., into the affectionate uncle familiar to farce, and finds the well-

* Lady Audley's Secret. By M. E. Braddon, author of "Aurora Floyd." London: Tinsley Brothers. 1862.

known "bless ye, my children," come trippingly on his tongue. Again, a husband but a year married, and loving his wife we are assured devotedly, having spent all his money, thinks that he best consults for the happiness of his wife and child by running away, leaving a little note to say that if he makes money in Australia, he will come back again, but if he doesn't, he won't. That a young woman thus left to starve, in a state of very unpleasant uncertainty as to whether she was a wife or a widow, should give herself the benefit of the doubt, when a wealthy baronet was at her feet, may be reprehensible. But it surely does not justify high moral indignation on the part of the runaway husband, nor does it certainly indicate a disposition which will commit theft, forgery, arson, and wholesale murder without a pang. Indeed, the conduct of "my lady," as the interesting criminal is called, is as unaccountable as even that of her first husband. It is hard to say whether the folly of her crimes, or the folly of her confession, is the more conspicuous. One thing is certain, that the way in which she throws up the game at last, and allows herself to be kidnapped into a madhouse, is quite inconsistent with the determination attributed to her. Those interested in her fate, however, must feel that, illegal as this proceeding may have been, the end justifies the means, for we learn that the proprietor of the madhouse, though a Belgian, is a good Protestant, and that arrangements are made with a "kind and benevolent Protestant clergyman, through whom spiritual advice and consolation is secured for the invalid lady." One of the most offensive things in this book, so far as there can be degrees in extreme offensiveness, is the catering for popularity by the cant of religious sentiment which pervades it.

The hero of the book is, of course, the character. He is a young lawyer, with nothing to do, but a perfect capacity for doing anything. He indulges in frivolous remarks, couched in silly forms of expression, and we are, therefore, compelled to believe that he is a fellow of infinite jest. His occupations in town are elevating his eyebrows and smoking cigars—both to an alarming extent; his occupations in the country are described in the following exquisite strain of humour:—

"During other visits to the Court, Robert Audley had made a feeble show of joining in the sports of the merry assembly. He had jogged across half a dozen ploughed fields on a quiet grey pony of Sir Michael's, and, drawing up breathless and panting at the door of some farmhouse, had expressed his intention of following the hounds no further that morning. He had even gone so far as to put on, with great labour, a pair of skates, with a view to taking a turn on the surface of the fish-pond, and had fallen ignominiously at the first attempt, lying placidly extended on the flat of his back, until such time as the bystanders should think fit to pick him up. He had occupied the back seat in a dog-cart during a pleasant morning drive, vehemently protesting against being taken up-hill, and requiring the vehicle to be stopped every ten minutes for the re-adjustment of the cushions."

This is, of course, delightful reading; but lest we should think too lowly of Mr. Audley, we are carefully assured that his courage was beyond impeachment. "He would have sat with perfect tranquillity upon an open gunpowder-barrel lighting his cigar;" and, in point of fact, he goes to bed, or rather, as the author puts it, he "calmly retired to rest," not only superior to thunder, but "serenely indifferent to the lightning playing fitfully round the razors in his open dressing-case." Human valour can no further go. No novel-reader will require to be told that, when once the brown eyes above referred to have looked upon this Brummagem Pelham, he rises into the highest altitudes of which our frail nature is susceptible. Intellectually, he hardly comes up to our expectations. He only becomes a leading man at the bar after two years' work, and a great triumph in a breach of promise case, in which he "convulsed the court by his deliciously comic rendering of the faithless Nobb's amatory correspondence." But, morally, he becomes a tremendous fellow. He gains the conviction that, "if a man has a battle to fight, let him fight it faithfully; but woe betide him if he skulks when his name is called in the mighty muster-roll; woe betide him if he hides in the tents when the tocsin summons him to the scene of war." Mr. Robert Audley in the flesh would be the idol of silly and affected women: it is hardly necessary to add, that in the judgments of all rational animals he would be esteemed a conspicuous fool.

M. E. Braddon greatly affects divine philosophy, or something which is intended to do duty for it; and, accordingly, profundities like the following are of constant occurrence:—

"The cab stopped in the midst of Robert Audley's meditation, and he had to pay the cabman and submit to all the dreary mechanism of life, which is the same whether we are glad or sorry—whether we are to be married or hung, elevated to the woolsack or disbarred by our brother benchers on some mysterious technical tangle of wrong-doing, which is a social enigma to those outside the Middle Temple. We are apt to be angry with this cruel hardness in our life—this unfinishing regularity in the smaller wheels and meaner mechanism of the human machine, which knows no stoppage or cessation, though the mainspring be for ever broken, and the hands pointing to purposeless figures upon a shattered dial. Who has not felt in the first madness of sorrow an unreasoning rage against the mute propriety of chairs and tables, the stiff squareness of Turkey carpets, the unbending obstinacy of the outward apparatus of existence?"

We had marked several other illustrative passages, but we forbear. We have quoted enough to justify our condemnation of the book as unnatural, feeble, and inelegant. Yet these faults of execution—bad as they are—become as nothing when compared with the radical fault of the whole, viz., the plot of the story. This we think a grievous mistake in point of art, to say nothing of morality. The artistic question is surely plain. Men and women do not become fit subjects for art by being hanged, or by deserving to be hanged. Not, indeed, that crime is in all cases unworthy of art, even of the very highest. In the hands of genius, a peasant girl condemned for infanticide can teach eternal lessons, and her cell may be the scene of conflict between the good and evil influences which have power over the race of man. The whole difference lies in the treatment. If the degradation of the criminal be kept out of view, we may find instruction from considering the issues of crime. But it cannot be too often repeated that mere criminality is always degrading—that a man only fit to be hanged will never make a tragic hero. Now in Lady Audley we have nothing but criminality, and that of the lowest and most degrading kind. She commits bigamy and forgery, and attempts wholesale murder, from no more overmastering motive

than a desire to gain and to retain a luxurious dressing-room. In "Lucretia," faulty as it was, Sir Edward Lytton strove to deal mainly with the issues of crime. M. E. Braddon is concerned with no such endeavour. We have nothing here but the lowest type of criminal—mean, cunning, cruel, and sensual. The newspapers which gave in detail the murder of O'Connor, and the detection of Mrs. Manning, furnished exactly the same style of reading as "Lady Audley's Secret."

It does not speak well either for the taste of the public, or for the sincerity of criticism, that such a book should have been so much read and so much praised. We have devoted an unusual amount of space to the expression of our disapproval, because the thing is so utterly undeserving of the popularity into which it has been pushed, and because the love of "the sensational" is spreading so fast. Already our theatres are given up to the coarsest melodrama; we cannot, without regret, see our literature undergo similar degradation. Husbands killing their wives, and wives killing their husbands, are themes surely not needful as warnings, and certainly not admirable as examples. If young ladies do delight therein, and respectable mothers have no objection, we fear that our disapproval will not greatly prevail. But we think it kind to suggest that they will find stories not one whit worse, and a vast deal more interesting, in the "Newgate Calendar."

TWO YEARS IN JAPAN AND NORTHERN CHINA.*

Not so very long ago people were complaining that all parts of the world were growing alike. Allowing for difference of temperature one might as well have been in Hammerfest or Hongkong as in London. Englishmen shot big game in Africa, and Frenchmen sat in Cochinchinese cafés as a mere matter of course, and the world was coming to the dull, dead level of the Roman Empire, with all its ideas dying for want of opposition. Happily we are saved for the present, and what seemed to England a trifle has led to important results; an admiral's blunder caused another Chinese war, and the Treaty of Tien-tsin led to the Treaty of Yedo. Whether from dread of the near neighbourhood of Russia, or a vision of Nipon as an American coal depot, the Japanese have sensibly determined to come out of their shell, and, by balancing the barbarian powers one against the other, to render them all harmless.

By this piece of good fortune we have come into contact with a nation which has given all our stagnating notions a healthy shock; there are thirty-five millions of men at the opposite pole of civilization who will neither be bullied into trade nor Christianized by storm, and, being utterly different, are in many respects as good as we.

Our fathers had learned from Goldsmith that the Japanese were highly paradoxical; that they preferred black teeth to white; and enjoyed trampling on crosses; but what is this to our recent discovery? We learn with amazement that mankind is not divided into Anglo-Saxons and niggers, with a small trifle of foreigners; we hear of a city, second only to London, which till yesterday had no foreign trade; of a nation at peace for centuries, which spends its money chiefly on swords and brass guns; of Asiatics who can make rifles and telegraphs; and of a people all looking contented and happy. When their ambassadors were staying at Claridge's, the public was delighted to find that their feelings harmonized with those of the Japanese on two great points—dislike of foreigners and absence of emotion at the wonders of the Enchanted Boilers.

The interest felt in Japan and the search for information about it have in no way diminished, and this insures an abundance of readers for any good book on the subject. This, however, may do some harm by inciting all who have been near it to rush into print; a practice which Mr. De Fonblanque justly condemns in the case of a gentleman who, "on the strength of a few months in Nagasaki, gave lectures on Japan and the Japanese to an admiring and credulous British audience." The writer of this book is in a very different case: he spent a few months in Yedo and a few days in Nagasaki; he has written a book instead of lecturing, and the British audience is neither credulous nor admiring. His indignation is just; we have a right to expect carefully selected and valuable information from a visit to the most interesting part of the world. Early in 1860 the author landed in Kanagawa Bay, on a mission to obtain horses for our cavalry in China. In his own words, he "passed nearly a year in Japan, and the nature of his duties brought him into contact with men of all ranks and conditions, from Cabinet Ministers and governors of provinces to horse-dealers." These are great advantages, and though his official work kept him in Yedo, except during a trip to Fusi-jama and a homeward visit to Nagasaki, we looked forward, on opening the book, to gaining much new information and some intellectual pleasure. In this we are more or less disappointed.

But after all a book must be judged by what it professes to give, and the writer, to disarm ferocity of criticism, has borrowed a leaf from the preface to "Eöthen." Our lines will remember a well-known passage, in which Mr. Kinglake says, that "from all details of geographical discovery or antiquarian research—from all useful statistics—from all political disquisitions—and from all good moral reflections, the volume is totally free." Mr. De Fonblanque, in his desire of striking the mean between "the dry realism of Blue-books and the rosy tints of Captain Sherard Osborn's charming romance," has been forced to echo the very same phrases. But the cases are not parallel; the East was becoming as well known as Switzerland when the author of "Eöthen" let us look at Syria through the glass of his own feelings, rather than collect the bare facts off a hackneyed country; Mr. De Fonblanque has tried to do the same, without the same excuse or the same results. His case is rather that of the lady who goes a tour and wishes to be seen in print with nothing new to say; an arrangement has to be made; her friends buy the book, she admires it, and the critics grant her the benefit of her sex. This book is something of the same sort; it is marked by a great deal of small talk, a profusion of French phrases and outlandish words, and a tendency to vagueness on important points. Instead of general phrases like "Vive le Daimio!" "Vive le Japon!" we should have liked more than a page about Nagasaki, and more new information in that one than that the town is dirtier than Yedo, and has a suburb called Decima, where the much-bullied Dutch traders lived. Other writers have plenty to say

* Nippon and Pe-che-li; or, Two Years in Japan and Northern China. By Edward Barrington De Fonblanque. London: Saunders, Otley, & Co.

about Decima, the island formed of rubbish for the proscribed Christians, but had he merely quoted stories from Kämpfer of the old times, when Dutch burgesses had to dance, play the drunkard, and sing love-songs to amuse the stupid young Tycoon, it would have been far better than nothing. But there was no political murder there at the time, and the subject of native immorality was exhausted, and so Nagasaki must go unnoticed.

Were it not for harping on these unpleasant subjects, this book might have earned "the privilege of young ladies" by a single sentence, in which the murder of Mr. Euskin is distinctly traced to a fatal dinner, at which thirteen sat down. This was forfeited by the continual recurrence to the painted inhabitants of the Quartier Bréda of Yedo. We gain much information throughout on this subject, including an account of a procession of social evil to the shrine of a tutelary god, and the devices which may be seen on the cups and fans bought by Europeans. Indeed, the Bishop of Victoria having purchased some china without careful examination, the heathen shopkeeper "was not restrained even by his sacred character from the outrage" of sending them to his house. This is very bad; much worse than that open-air washing, which shocked the author so much that we are haunted by the subject till he leaves Japan. We agree with Mr. Oliphant in thinking that it must be rather jolly for Paterfamilias, with the mother and little ones all, to be splashing about in their tubs outside, if they see no harm in it, even though they be (in the writer's words) *décolletés jusqu'à la jarretière*.

The account of the European society in Yedo is much more amusing: the butterfly-trick, the paper pocket-handkerchiefs, and the "Feejee mermaids" are made the most of; and there is a graphic description of the murder of the Gotamo, or Prince Regent, and of the constant disturbances made by the retainers of the almost feudal nobles. If we are to fraternize with our clever allies, these old-fashioned classes will have to be "improved off."

The author had the good fortune to be one of a party of English in a fourteen days' trip to Fusijama, the matchless mountain, which lies about 125 miles from Yedo. Mr. Alcock accompanied them, "the Consul with the big heart," who has done so much for our interests in Japan. "He makes it a point never to offend Japanese prejudices, when he loses nothing in dignity or self-respect by yielding to them, or unnecessarily to commit what to them would appear a breach of good manners or a want of respect." This may sound a commonplace eulogy, but it is a character rare enough among Europeans in Asia to make it very valuable. According to Japanese report, the holy mountain rose in a volcanic eruption some twenty thousand years ago, "and challenged the worship and the love of the millions who gazed upon its snowy peak, as it glittered for the first time in the morning sun; and this reverence has survived time and change; has grown with the growth and strengthened with the strength of the Japanese people." They travelled at first through miles of cedar and lime avenues, and in five days reached the mountain lake, 6,000 feet above the sea, within a few miles of which the spiritual government of the Mikado begins. "The Storming of Fusijama" is well told, and we will not spoil it by extracts; but we must again accuse the writer of great carelessness in his allusions to the religion of Japan. "Fusijama," he tells us, "is the temple, the grave, and the monument of the father of their faith, Sinfuh;" adding in a note, "whose doctrines may be considered to represent, with regard to the various forms of the Buddhist faith in Japan, much the same relative position as the Roman Catholic Church occupies towards other Christian Churches in Europe."

This is an unlucky sentence; for Fusijama is devoted, not to Buddhism, but to the "Old Faith of the Gods." There the Sun-goddess is worshipped with her children, whose vicar on earth is the Mikado, who can intercede for and canonize the living and the dead. There is a curious resemblance of some of the numerous Buddhist ceremonials to those of the Roman Catholic Church, which has been often described, but no likeness or connection between Sinfuh-ism, or the faith of Sinfuh, and that of Buddh. The writer evidently thinks that the latter is the universal faith of Japan, and quite ignores the third religion, the almost sublime creed held by the "mystic" philosophers, the disciples of Confucius.

Nevertheless, the account of Fusijama is interesting, and would be well told were it not for some very bad puns built up through an entire page with a horrible simplicity and lack of meaning. The author acknowledges that this is a reprehensible practice, but pleads its popularity in garrison towns. This excuse must, perforce, do double duty, and account for the insertion of so much doubtful matter, which would have been far better suppressed. More fortunate than Lord Elgin, the author had leisure to sail through the inland sea of Sowonada, where lie the port of Hiogo and the city of Ohosaka, soon to be opened to Europeans by the treaty of Yedo. We shall then be within a few miles of Miako, where the spiritual Emperor lives surrounded by his clergy: we may then learn more of the practical working of this "old faith," the Nature-worship of Sinfuh. The Confucians disbelieve in a future state, and inculcate virtue, courtesy, and decency for their own sake; but they must always remain a mere intellectual clique. Buddhism has been found wanting long ago; of its three hundred million votaries, how many can distinguish its vast shadowy tenets from Atheism? Their Nirvana is the vaguest of heavens, and the mass of Japanese prefer the old religion, which tells them of a future state of reward and punishment. This is much more like our own modes of thought, and may be in time our point of religious contact with Japan. We have said enough to show that Mr. De Fonblanque committed no trifling mistake in confusing all these religions together as forms of Buddhism. We can form but an indistinct idea of the constitution of Japanese society without learning more about life in the provinces and in the Religious Capital; but from what we have heard of Yedo, it seems as if another feudalism had grown up there, and were still alive, in full vigour, side by side with the modern improvements of government by spies, red tape, and etiquette. In old times, the Mikado ruled by means of sixty-eight princes, holding their lands of him for certain services; at the revolution which dethroned the Mikado, and placed the Tycoon in power as the "chief of the nobles," it was thought advisable to subdivide these powerful principalities among some three hundred Daimios, who were obliged to pass half the year in their castles at Yedo, and on returning to their dominions to leave their families as hostages. There was also an inferior class of nobility, the knights who held of these immediate lords. This constitution still remains, and government is carried on by a council from the two orders, presided over by the Tycoon. We may possibly have light thrown on dark places in

the history of the Middle Ages by studying these analogous institutions still alive in Japan.

What are we to think of the character of the Japanese people? The writer of this book, though ready to admire many points about them, confesses that they are "a depraved and profligate race, devoid of shame and modesty," that their religion is a gross superstition (which we have shown that he is hardly qualified to decide), and that they are a nation of liars. Not to discuss the other points, can we expect truth all at once from them? The fusion of Christianity and feudalism produced chivalry, the code of honour, and a tendency to love truth for its own sake. We fear that the abstract love of it is not yet very widely diffused in Europe; and yet our travellers demand it imperiously from the Asiatics, whose religion omits all mention of it, and forget that centuries are required for its growth. In this particular case we do not even know whether the Japanese deceive each other, or only patriotically put off the barbarians with pious frauds at the command of the Government. As to forming a judgment on the other points from European experience of the great cities and their suburbs, it is as if the criminal statistics of Paris were taken as a gauge of the average morals of France, or as if the Japanese ambassadors had taken London to be England in miniature.

About China this book tells us little new. We learn from it that Tien-tsin, or "the Heavenly Spot," is ugly and slow; that the officers were "dependent on their own heads for intellectual pursuits and mental recreation;" that they acted a farce, the prologue of which is quoted, and which may not have been bad for the barracks at Tien-tsin; and that they were very dull. There are one or two humorous stories in the second part, and a good description of the funeral sermon over General Collineau's grave; the end of the army chaplain's address was,—"Messieurs, je n'ai plus rien à vous dire;" then with a wave of his hat towards the open grave, "Adieu, mon Général, au revoir."

The author describes himself as an old traveller in all parts of the world; in this case a clever writer should have produced a book less flimsy than "Two Years in Nippon and Pe-che-li." Not that we wish to condemn the book utterly, but rather to say of it in the words of another quotation from his favourite preface:—

"You may listen to him for ever without learning much in the way of statistics; but, perhaps, if you bear with him long enough, you may find yourself slowly and slightly impressed with the realities of (Japanese) travel."

ART AND SCIENCE.

CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

NOTWITHSTANDING the increasing employment of iron in ship-building, there is little doubt that the consumption of wood for the same purpose will not fall off. The enormous impetus which naval architecture has experienced of late years has made serious inroads into the stock of well-seasoned timber existing in the yards; and as years are required to replace this by other timber fit for use, it has been necessary to devise some plan whereby the serious loss of time in seasoning could be prevented without increasing the tendency to decay. It is generally admitted that the decay of timber is connected with the development of fungi, and these can be prevented or repressed in several ways. The channels or spaces round the timber can be ventilated, so as to disturb the stagnation of the air; the timber may be prepared in such a manner as to prevent the engendering and growth of fungi, or the air in contact with the timber may be impregnated with a substance destructive to the spores of the fungi. Of these plans, the second is the one most adopted; and, whilst good ventilation should not be neglected, it is the plan which best promises to fulfil the end in view. A preservative process has lately been introduced into the dockyard at Cherbourg whereby the surface of the timber is thoroughly charred without burning the wood too deeply, the outer layer being by this means completely carbonized, whilst below a scorched surface is found impregnated with the products of distillation, the antiseptic properties of which are well known.

The good effects of charring wood to preserve it are no modern discovery. From time immemorial, it has been the practice to burn the ends of poles driven into the ground to preserve them from decay; and in our own dockyards, in the eighteenth century, a similar plan was adopted,—the *Royal William*, one of the most remarkable instances of durability that the British navy has supplied, having been built, either wholly or in part, of timber that had been so charred. It is certainly strange that this excellent plan has been so long abandoned. M. de Lappareul, inspector-general of timber for the French navy, has lately devised the following arrangement for safely and economically carbonizing timber in their dockyards. An india-rubber pipe is connected to a gas main, and to the other end a small bellows and blow-pipe jet are adapted. The object of this is to mix with the gas the air necessary for complete combustion, and also to communicate to the jet of flame such a force that it may be directed every way, and made to act not only on the surface of the wood, but in the holes, joints, bolts, mortices, &c. The combustion and charring take place without the least danger, and with the most perfect regularity. The consumption of gas is rather large; thus, it requires about 200 gallons of gas per 10 square feet of carbonized surface, costing about 1½d. In ten hours one man can char a surface of 440 square feet. A slight saving is effected by smearing a little tar over the surface of the wood before carbonization. In this manner the charring of the cracks that almost always occur on the surface of rough timber is facilitated, whilst it also prevents the cracking and splintering off of little ignited particles. Only a slight facing of tar must be put on, a thicker layer would impede instead of furthering the operation. This excellent preservative plan is not only applicable to ships; it can be equally well adopted in housebuilding; it should be applied to the beams and joists embedded in the walls or surrounded with plaster; to the joists of stables, cow-houses, wash-houses, &c., which are constantly surrounded by a warm and moist atmosphere, an active cause of fermentation; to the wainscoting of ground floors; to the

flooring beneath the parquet work; to the joints of tongues and rabbets, &c., for carbonization by means of gas still leaves to the wood for working purposes all the sharpness of its edges.

Numberless other applications of this principle will suggest themselves, whilst scarcely any special precautions are requisite against fire beyond ordinary care and watchfulness. The apparatus required is of the simplest description, and the plan appears so excellent, that any of our readers may forthwith try the experiment on a sufficiently large scale to test its value.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE NEBULA AND THE PLEIADES.

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—I referred a few weeks ago to the revision and cataloguing of the nebulae which is now being carried out by D'Arrest, at Copenhagen, and may be considered one of the greatest astronomical labours at present in progress. Whilst his determinations assign a great general invariability to the nebulae, one result has been the discovery of a remarkable case of variability in one situated in the Pleiades, and only 4° distant from the one discovered by Mr. Hind in 1852, which, in 1861, had become totally invisible to every telescope, with the single exception of the great refractor at Pultowa. This second case is of a nebula discovered by Tempel, at Venice, in the year 1859, on the 19th of October, and stated by him to be then large and bright, and equal to a beautiful comet, although his observations were made with a telescope of but small power. Last August, when the nights were clear and the atmosphere remarkably transparent, d'Arrest, with his fine refractor, at Copenhagen, repeatedly looked for it and saw no trace of it.

This coming to the knowledge of Schmidt, the director of the observatory at Athens, he communicated (under date September 20, 1862) the curious fact that it could only have become visible a short time before its discovery by Tempel, or at least that it must have been exceedingly faint for some time previous to that, as he had from the year 1841 made very many most careful observations of the stars in the Pleiades, estimating many hundreds of times their comparative magnitudes, and had not seen the nebula until the 5th of February, 1861, when it appeared very large, very pale, and of no definite form. After that date he observed it several times, the last on March 26th of the present year, when it was easily visible.

It should be observed that Auwers, at Gottingen, states that he has seen the nebula with a two-foot comet-seeker after the time when it was invisible with D'Arrest's great telescope, and that, believing the cause to be that faint, ill-defined objects are more easily seen with a small than with a large telescope, he even doubts the fact of the variability of the nebula. But the great number of the observations made by Schmidt upon the Pleiades scarcely permit us to share this doubt, which Auwers expressed before Schmidt's announcement appeared; the latter being only published in the last number of the *Astronomische Nachrichten*.—I remain, sir, your obedient servant,

L. T. W.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

ARCHEOPTERYX.—In the *Times* about a fortnight since, in an article by "Y," which our contemporary the *Parthenon* notices as emanating from a "distinguished osteologist," but whose account of that bird is very incorrect in many points, there is a statement made that the British Museum had been obliged to purchase the whole of M. Häberlein's collection at a cost of £750, in order to obtain that unique specimen. The cost of the whole collection was under £400. We have seen the second instalment of this purchase, which arrived last week, and consists of many splendid specimens in most wonderful preservation; amongst them are the long-tailed Pterodactyle *Ramphorhynchus*, the *Homoosaurus*, *Geosaurus*, and many fishes; the forthcoming descriptions of which, by Professor Owen, will undoubtedly excite great interest.

PAPER.—The manufacture of paper from the leaves of Indian corn is becoming extensive in Austria. The paper is said to be tougher than any ordinary paper made from rags, while it is almost free from silica, the substance which makes paper produced from straw so brittle.

LEARNED SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS.

Philological, Thursday, Nov. 27.—A paper was read, entitled, "Remarks and Experiments on English Hexameters," by C. B. Cayley, B.A., translator of Dante's "Divina Commedia." The motto was Πάσαι ἐξηγήσονται τὰ καλὰ.—*Herodotus*.

The writer's first object was to produce a strict imitation, in all its essential features, of the ancient or classical hexameter, which might be appreciable by the English ear, not by intuition or on a slovenly reading,—as even a modern or native metre would not always be,—but after a little familiarity and attention. He would demand that the professed critic of such verse should be ready to enunciate a Greek, or at least a Latin hexameter, with the utmost attainable correctness in points connected with quantity or accent; and he thought it very important that the doubled consonants should be fully sounded, as in the Italian *Apolline*, *Sibilla*, or nearly as in *coolly*, *wholly*, because in *Apollo*, as it is vulgarly pronounced in England, the second *l* is inaudible, so that the syllable is truly short and acute, like the first of *πόλις*, or *polity*. He wished this point to be observed in the proper names of his English versions, because the reader who should consciously remodel the quantitative structure of such words, would necessarily appear to himself and to others as a barbarian.

These and similar points have been well handled in *Fraser's Magazine*, in a review on Professor Arnold's "Lectures on Homer," where the important doctrine is also noticed, that a Latin hexameter is never throughout accentual; that is to say, that in every line, except the most abnormal and exceptional, there is to be found a single foot—at the very least beginning with an unaccented or weak syllable,—a mode quite contrary to the tendencies of the modern hexameter, in which every foot is supposed to commence strong. This quality of the Latin

line springs from the rules of the cesura and from the accentual structure of the language; and the critic most appositely illustrates its essentialness by imagining Virgil's line,—

"Incipe, parve puer,—risu cognoscere matrem"

turned into

"Incipe párve puérule risu noscere matrem,"

which would evidently be more Klopstockian. Only the article in *Fraser* asserts erroneously that accentual lines, or homotonic as they might be conveniently termed, are found in Greek; for this only appears to be the case from our reading Greek with a Latin accentuation, that is, laying the stress on every long penult. For, when the writer referred to instances as homotonic, the line,—

Αὐτίς ἐπειτα πίδονδε κυλινδeto λᾶς ἀναίδης,

it is evident he reads it with a quasi Latin accent as,—

"Aútis epeíta pedónde kulindeto láas anaídaes."

But the study of languages teaches us that the Latin relations of quantity and accent cannot be applied to all tongues indiscriminately, and the Greek tradition, which repudiates them, as we see by the written accent-signs, is fortified by the most important analogies, both ancient and modern, Sanscrit and Russian, no less than by modern Greek usage. There is still an immense apparent difference between the accentual structure of the Greek and Latin verse; for in Latin the syllable preceding a regular cesura must, generally speaking, be a weak one; in Greek it may often bear an accent. But then this accent in Greek must generally be either grave or circumflex, not acute; and the grave-marked syllable has not the same intonation as the acute, but approaches the unaccented; while the circumflexed syllable ends like the grave, or like the unmarked. The author conjectured that the acute and grave accents differed nearly as principal and secondary accents in English, such as are heard, not only in polysyllables, but in combinations of monosyllables. The Greek marked the secondary accents in the latter case rather than in the former, and pronounced various words in combination without a primary accent—a thing which is by no means difficult to conceive. In an English line the writer preferred a weak syllable, or a secondary accent, before the essential cesuras; but he had not made this a positive rule, so long as the line was not throughout homotonic. He thought that a foot commencing weak produced a rest, from which the line proceeded with more of a spring; and that this tenour contributed much to the composed and graceful, though yet vigorous movement, of the classical style. After all that is said, the verse of Homer has not the smoothness of Ovid, or even of Virgil; but Homer required, at any cost, a more flexible verse, to suit the essentially dramatic or graphic style of his poems.

After alluding to the accentual structure of mediæval Latin lines, of the Italian hexameter of Tolomei and Alberti, and of the English Elizabethan hexameters (the first in whom the homotonic tendencies are conspicuous), the writer repudiated emphatically the maxim that accent in a modern language was the same as quantity in an ancient; this was like saying that noise on the pianoforte was equivalent to time on the cithara. He noticed the marked effects of quantity in the most exquisite English verses, such as are found in Milton, or like the favourite couplet of Pope,—

"Lo! where Maotis creeps and hardly flows,
The freezing Tanais through a waste of snows;"

and he proceeded to read a translation from the first book of the "Iliad," of which we cite the following:—

"Wine-bibber, whose aspect is a dog's, whose heart is a roe's heart,
Who 'mid this people never hast endur'd to don armor,
Or sit in ambushade, compass'd w' the best of Achæans!
No! for thy spirit halts, where grim destruction appeareth,
And it's more to the purpose,—among wide-camping Achæans,
Going about seizing prizes, should a man gainsay thee,
Folk-ravensing sovereign, whereso poltroons are obedient!
Else were thy latest outrage, Agamemnon, accomplish'd.
Now mark my protest: for an oath of might shall avouch it;
Yea, by this sceptre, which again will spread never henceforth
In boughs or foliage,—for of old its root on a mountain
Was sunder'd, nor burgeon again, since brass has around it
Its leaves all and bark cut away; now sons of Achæans
Bear it in hand, judgments dispensing, namely, the guardians
Of Jove's high mandate: lo! an oath of might to suffice thee,
Surely to this people shall a crowning come for Achilles,
Unto them all and each: nor at all thine hearty repenting
Shall work their rescue, when a swarm by murderous Hector
Sinks perishing: then smain thou'lt rive thine heart with annoyance
That thou could'st not honour more wisely the best of Achæans."

Asiatic, Nov. 17; Lord Strangford, President.—"On the Relations of Rome with India subsequently to the Fall of Palmyra," by O. de B. Priault, Esq. The paper showed, by numerous quotations from writers of the period down to the conquest of Southern Arabia by the Persians under Nushirwan, that, although Buddhism appears to have exercised a certain influence, from time to time, over some of the conflicting religious systems established in the southern provinces of the lower empire, all regular and direct intercourse with India had ceased, and all true knowledge of that country and its inhabitants had become obliterated.

Geological, Nov. 19.—A paper was read "On the Cambrian and Huronian Formations, with Remarks on the Laurentian," by J. J. Bigsby, M.D., F.G.S. The author came to the conclusion that the Cambrian and the Huronian are distinct formations, and that the latter is very much the older.

Chemical, Nov. 20.—The papers read were—1. "On the Specific Gravity of Urine as a Measure of its Solid Constituents," by E. Nicholson, F.C.S., Staff Assistant-Surgeon. The author showed that this could not be accomplished by any of the means proposed without eliminating the chloride of sodium, which was always present, but in very variable quantities. 2. "On some Methods of forming Organo-metallic Radicals by Substitution," by G. B. Buckton, F.R.S. Up to the present time there appear to be four different methods known for procuring the organo-metallic radicals; viz., by bringing the reducing action of sunlight to bear upon the haloid compounds of the alcohol radicals in presence of a metal; by the action of potassium- and sodium-alloys of certain metals upon the haloids of the alcohol radicals; by decomposing ordinary haloids of the metal by zinc-methyl, or ethyl, or by substituting for these haloids salts of the organo-metals; by the displacement of the metal contained in the organo-metalloid by another metal in a more electro-positive or electro-negative state than the one removed. The experiments described by the author were more particularly connected with the latter method, and were undertaken partly for the purpose of studying the interchange of the true metals contained in various organo-metalloids when acted upon by simple metals and their salts, and partly for testing the action of the metalloids themselves upon salts of other organo-metallic radicals. The author thought that his experiments, which were given with minute details in the paper, show that the metallic substitutions are tolerably well indicated by their electro-position, but that the results are modified by the more

or less saturated condition of the metals contained in the radicals; and that the mercuric organo-metals may be partially or entirely reduced by tin compounds.

Dr. Hoffmann exhibited the spontaneously inflammable silicified hydrogen discovered some time back by Woehler. It is the representative in the Marsh gas series of phosphuretted hydrogen in the Ammonia series.

Zoological, Nov. 25.—The papers read were,—by Mr. W. K. Parker, "On the Osteology of Gallinaceous Birds;" by Dr. J. E. Gray, on a tortoise (n. s.) (*Dogania*) from Asia, and of two tortoises (n. s.) of the genus *Batagur*, viz., *B. picta*, from Sarawak, and *B. Elliotti*, from Southern India; also on new species of mammalia in the British Museum, including a new leopard from Japan and a new antelope from Natal; by Mr. Bartlett, on habits of the beaver; by Dr. Cobbold, on *Entozoa* infecting mankind (thirty-nine species); by Mr. Gould, on new birds from Formosa; the most remarkable was a splendid new pheasant, *Eupocamus Swinhoei*; by Mr. Swinhoe, on new birds from Pekin. Letters were read from Sir R. Schomburgk on the female of *Diardigallus Crawfordii*; from Mr. W. Williams, on the breeding of a West Indian tortoise in Cornwall; from Dr. G. Bennett, on his efforts to procure for the society living specimens of *Didunculus strigirostris*; from Dr. Shortt, on the habits of *Daboia elegans*; from Dr. L. Pfeiffer, on new land shells in Cummingian collection; and from Mr. W. H. Pease, on new marine shells from Pacific Islands.

Dr. Schlater made some remarks on the Japanese bear (*Ursus Japonicus* of Schlegel) living in the Society's menagerie.

Geographical, Nov. 17.—1. "On the Lake Nyassa, in Africa," by Dr. and Mr. C. Livingstone. This was an account of the exploration of the Lake Nyassa. From soundings, the greatest depth obtained was 696 feet. The natives of that region were civil, and the population dense. The exploring party was obliged to turn back, although in sight of the large mountain-masses to the north, in which Dr. Livingstone thinks it probable the lake ends, in consequence of the land party having fled, the provisions being expended, and the country desolated by the slave-trading expeditions from the coast. The Doctor and his party were about to carry a small steamer, in pieces, past the Murchison Cataract, to navigate the lake, which was 200 miles long by 50 broad. —2. "On the East African Expedition under Captains Speke and Grant," being a statement of the difficulties the expedition had encountered in consequence of a severe famine and the petty wars carried on between the natives and Arabs. The last date was Bagwe, 30th September, 1861. —3. "Explorations in Abyssinia," by Mr. S. W. Baker. The journey extended over a large portion of Abyssinia, principally along the course of the river Atbara. The whole of the adjacent country is eminently adapted for the growth of cotton of a superior quality, a sample of which was exhibited.

Statistical, Nov. 18.—"On the Vital Statistics of Tasmania," by Dr. E. S. Hall, of Hobarton, Tasmania. This colony has had a registration of births, deaths, and marriages since 1838. According to the census of 1857, the population of the colony was 77,794; viz., 30,032 men, 20,419 women, and 27,343 children under fourteen years. The number of convicts was 3,008; 2,139 being men and 869 women. This census showed 34 per cent. under fourteen years, 10 per cent. between fourteen and twenty-one, 42½ per cent. between twenty-one and forty-five, 11 per cent. between forty-five and sixty, and 3 per cent. above sixty. Compared with England and France, these ratios show an equality with England as regards the population under fourteen, but an excess of 4 per cent. over that of France; from fourteen to twenty-one the proportions were the same in the three populations. From twenty-one to forty-five, Tasmania has an excess of nearly 8 per cent. over England, and 6 per cent. over France. Between forty-five and sixty there is a slight difference in favour of both England and France; and above that age a very large one. The number of births in the colony has steadily increased every year since 1847. The birth-rate is one birth to every 26·12 of the population, against one in 29 in England, and one in 34 in France. The death-rate for the whole colony was 18½ per 1,000, or only 1½ per 1,000 more than the healthiest districts in England. The average daily death-rate, however, is only half that of the birth-rate. The death-rate varies considerably in the town and country districts, being much below the average in the rural districts, and nearly equal to that of Liverpool in the towns of Hobarton and Launceston. The excessive mortality of the towns, Dr. Hall attributed to bad water supply, defective sanitary arrangements, and the intemperate habits of the lower class of colonists. Amongst the causes of death, diarrhoea was mentioned as a frequent and fatal epidemic among children. The deaths from consumption are less than those of England, and are chiefly confined to immigrants, there being scarcely any cases amongst native-born Tasmanians. The general result of Dr. Hall's inquiries was very favourable to the healthiness of Tasmania.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

LIST OF MEETINGS FOR NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY.

ARCHITECTS—Conduit-street, Hanover-square, at 8 P.M. "On the Church of St. Michael, Penkival, Cornwall, and its Restoration." By Mr. G. E. Street.
ROYAL SOCIETY—Burlington House, at 4 P.M. (Anniversary).
GEOLOGISTS' ASSOCIATION—5, Cavendish-square, W., at 7 P.M. "On some Processes in the Useful Arts as applied to the Explanation of Certain Geological Phenomena." By Mr. Tomlinson.
MEDICAL—32a, George-street, Hanover-square, at 8½ P.M. Lettsomian Lecture—"Means of Ameliorating the Physical and Moral Condition of the Masses." By James Bird, M.D.
LONDON INSTITUTION—Finsbury Circus, at 7 P.M. "Reptiles." By Professor Owen.
ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 2 P.M. Monthly Meeting.

TUESDAY.

CIVIL ENGINEERS—25, Great George-street, Westminster, at 8 P.M. "On Some of the Internal Disturbing Forces of Locomotive Engines." By Mr. A. W. Mackinson, C.E.
ETHNOLOGICAL—4, St. Martin's-place, Trafalgar-square, at 8 P.M. 1. "Human Remains at Wroxeter." By T. Wright, Esq. 2. "Languages as a Test of the Races of Man." By J. Crawford, Esq. 3. "On the Aborigines in Australia." By E. Preiss, Esq.

WEDNESDAY.

GEOLOGICAL—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. 1. "On Enalcosaurian Vertebræ from the Coal Measures of Nova Scotia." By O. C. Marsh, Esq., of Yale College, U.S. 2. Thickness of Pampean Formation near Buenos Ayres." By C. Darwin, Esq. 3. "On Fossil Estheria, and their Distribution." By Professor Rupert Jones. 4. "Geological Note on the Locality in Siberia where Fossil Estheria are Found." By C. E. Austin, Esq., C.E.
LONDON INSTITUTION—Finsbury Circus, at 7 P.M. "Heat in Geological Phenomena." By S. W. Brayley, F.R.S.
SOCIETY OF ARTS—John-street, Adelphi, at 8 P.M. "Boat-building by Machinery." By Mr. D. Paseley.

THURSDAY.

ANTIQUARIES—Somerset House, at 8½ P.M.
LINNEAN—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. 1. "A Naturalist's Journey to the Capital of Madagascar." By Mr. Mellor. 2. "On the Food and Parasites of the Salmon." 3. "On the Hairs of the Shore-Crab." By Dr. McIntosh.
CHEMICAL—Burlington House, at 8 P.M. 1. "On the Determination of Organic Matter in Drinking Water." By Dr. Woods. 2. "On the Reactions of Sulphate and Sulphide of Lead with Hydrogen and Carbonic Oxide." By Mr. Rodwell.

FRIDAY.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE—26, Suffolk-street, Pall-mall, at 4 P.M. 1. "Anglo-Saxon Cemetery and Vestiges in Lincolnshire." By the Rev. E. Trollope. 2. "On Oriol Windows and on a Curious Architectural Object of that Class at Lincoln." By Mr. Joseph Moore. 3. "Observations on Cromlechs, and a Remarkable Example in South Wales." By Mr. John Edward Lee, of Caerleon. 4. "Gimmel Rings." By Mr. Edmund Waterton. 5. "On a Roman Villa lately found in Oxfordshire." By Professor Westwood. 6. "On a Die for Striking Gold Coins, the Earliest Helvetic Currency, lately found at Avenches, in Switzerland." By Dr. F. Keller. 7. "On a very Curious Sword of the Sixteenth Century, lately discovered in the Rotunda at Woolwich" (which will be exhibited by the kind permission of the Secretary of State for War). By Mr. J. Hewitt.
LONDON INSTITUTION—Finsbury-circus, at 7 P.M. "On Non-Metallic Elements." By Professor Field, F.C.S.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK ENDING NOVEMBER 29, 1862.

Ahn's (Dr. F.) French Class Book for Beginners: being the First French Course. Fourth Edition. 12mo., cloth, 1s. 6d.
Aids to Prayer. 32mo., cloth, curtain edges, 1s. 6d.
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A detailed Prospectus, containing Syllabuses of all the Courses of Lectures, and all other information, arrangements for boarding, &c., may be obtained by application to the Director.

THE SCHOOL WILL OPEN IN THE FIRST WEEK IN FEBRUARY, 1863.

ST. ANDREW'S COLLEGE, Bradfield.—On January 29, 1863, there will be an Election of Two Boys under the age of 14, to the Foundation of this School, one of whom must be either fatherless or the son of a poor gentleman or clergyman. By the statutes it is provided that—"The Founder's boys shall be lodged, boarded, and instructed gratuitously, and upon terms of equality in all respects with the Commoners." A printed form of application for admission as a Candidate may be had from the Secretary.
The Examination will begin on January 28, at 11 o'clock.

KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.—The PROFESSORSHIP OF CLASSICAL LITERATURE will be VACANT at EASTER NEXT, and the Council are now ready to receive applications from gentlemen desirous of offering themselves as Candidates.
For particulars apply to
J. W. CUNNINGHAM, Secretary.

HOSPITAL FOR CONSUMPTION AND DISEASES OF THE CHEST, Brompton, S.W., supported by Voluntary Contributions.—Liberal and continuous support is required to meet the current expenses of this Charity.
PHILIP ROSE, Hon. Sec.
HENRY DOBBIN, Sec.

TO ARTISTIC, SCIENTIFIC, and OTHER SOCIETIES.
THE whole or part of a handsome Suite of FURNISHED ROOMS, on a First Floor, in Old Bond-street, TO BE LET for occasional Meetings. For particulars, apply to the Secretary of the Arundel Society, 24, Old Bond-street, W.

A GENTLEMAN and his WIFE, whose income has become reduced through reverses, seek BOARD and RESIDENCE in a family of respectability, for which they are willing to pay £100 per annum. And the lady, who is very competent, will be happy to devote a portion of her time to the management of the household or in reading to an invalid. By a widower or delicate wife with large family the arrangement proposed for taking part in the household cares would perhaps be considered an adequate compensation for the small sum proposed to be paid for board &c. Address, by letter only, to C. C., 1, Savoy-street, Strand.

ARUNDEL SOCIETY.—The Publications for 1862, consisting of FIVE CHROMO-LITHOGRAPHS and a LINE ENGRAVING, are now being distributed. Members who have not paid their subscription are reminded that, owing to the rapid increase of the Society, the number of copies available for issue in complete sets, in return for guinea subscriptions, will speedily be exhausted; and members, as well as strangers, can then only obtain the publications separately at advanced prices.
JOHN NORTON, Hon. Sec.
24, Old Bond-street, November, 1862.

STAR LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.
48, MOORGATE-STREET, LONDON.
Every Description of Life Assurance.
The Annual Income exceeds £100,000.
The Reserved Fund is nearly Half-a-Million.
JESSE HOBSON, Secretary.

THE MUTUAL LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY (A.D. 1834), 39, King-street, Cheapside, E.C., London.
Capital on November 1, 1862, from Premiums alone, £438,490. Income, £75,000. Assurances, £1,700,000. Bonuses average more than 2½ per cent. per annum on sum assured.
Profits divided yearly and begin on second premium. Every member can attend and vote at all general meetings. Last Annual Report and Accounts may be had.
CHARLES INGALL, Actuary.

THE LIVERPOOL AND LONDON FIRE AND LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

INVESTED FUNDS, £1,350,000.
London Board.
SIR JOHN MUSGROVE, Bart., Chairman.
Deputy Chairmen.
FREDERICK HARRISON, Esq.
WM. SCHOLEFIELD, Esq., M.P.
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Sir William P. de Bathe, Bart.
Henry V. East, Esq.
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John Laurie, Esq.
William Macnaughtan, Esq.
Ross D. Mangles, Esq.
James Morley, Esq.
Sir Charles Nicholson, Bart.
William Nicol, Esq., M.P.
Swinton Boulton, Esq., Secretary to the Company.

In 1857 the Duty on Fire Insurances in Great Britain paid to Government by this Company was £32,882, and in 1861 it was £61,833, being an increase in five years of £29,951.

In 1860 the Fire Premiums were £313,725; in 1861 they were £360,130; being an increase in one year of £46,405. The losses paid amount to £2,500,000, and all claims are settled with liberality and promptitude.

JOHN ATKINS, Resident Secretary.

ACCIDENTS ARE UNAVOIDABLE!!
Every one should therefore provide against them.
THE RAILWAY PASSENGERS ASSURANCE COMPANY

Grant Policies for Sums from £100 to £1,000, Assuring against ACCIDENTS OF ALL KINDS.

An Annual Payment of £3 secures £1,000 in case of DEATH by ACCIDENT, or a Weekly Allowance of £6 to the Assured while laid up by Injury.

Apply for Forms of Proposal, or any information, to the Provincial Agents, the Booking Clerks at the Railway Stations, Or to the Head Office, 64, CORNHILL, LONDON, E.C. £102,817 have been paid by this Company as Compensation for 56 fatal Cases, and 5,041 Cases of Personal Injury.

The SOLE COMPANY privileged to issue RAILWAY JOURNEY INSURANCE TICKETS, costing 1d., 2d., or 3d., at all the Principal Stations.

Empowered by Special Act of Parliament, 1849.
64, Cornhill, E.C. WILLIAM J. VIAN, Secretary.

SOUTH AUSTRALIAN BANKING COMPANY.—Incorporated by Royal Charter, 1847.—Letters of Credit and Bills issued upon Adelaide, Port Adelaide, Gawler, Robe, Radina, and Wallaroo. Approved drafts negotiated and sent for collection. Every description of Banking business conducted with Victoria, New South Wales, and the other Australian Colonies, through the Company's Agents.
London: 54, Old Broad-street, E.C.
WILLIAM PURDY, Manager.

SOVEREIGN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY, 48, St. James's-street, London, S.W.

TRUSTEES.
The Right Hon. the Earl of Shrewsbury and Talbot.
Sir Claude Scott, Bart.
Henry Pownall, Esq.
DIRECTORS.
Chairman—The Lord Arthur Lennox.
Deputy Chairman—Sir James Carmichael, Bart.
John Ashburner, Esq., M.D.
T. M. B. Batard, Esq.
Lieut.-Col. Bathurst.
John Gardiner, Esq.
J. W. Huddleston, Esq., Q.C.
Charles Osborne, Esq.
BANKERS.
Sir Claude Scott, Bart., & Co.
Founded in 1845.

REPORT OF DIRECTORS, and Statement of Proceedings at the Ordinary Meeting of Proprietors, held on the 7th MAY, 1862.

LORD ARTHUR LENNOX, in the Chair.
The Report of the Directors, made in the Spring of last year, appealed to the Proprietors and others interested in the Office, to assist the Directors in making 1861 the most successful year of the Company's operations; and, notwithstanding the absence of general commercial prosperity throughout the country, the Directors are happy to say that in many respects the desired result of their appeal has been realized.

This year was, however, remarkable in the experience of this Office, as it is believed it was in that of other similar Institutions, for the number of lapsed Assurances, especially in those districts where industry has been impeded by the suspension of our commercial relations with America.

At the same time the business effected has been greater than at any former period, the New Premiums amounting to £6,055. 11s. 3d. Assuring £171,250 by the issue of 722 Policies.

The point, however, on which the Directors have most reason to congratulate the Proprietors is, that after a very careful and rigid investigation into the position and prospects of the Company, made in pursuance of the requirements of the Deed of Settlement, by Mr. PETER HARDY, the eminent Actuary, the result, as embodied in the following Report, is of the most satisfactory character.

"TO THE CHAIRMAN AND DIRECTORS OF THE SOVEREIGN LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY."

"GENTLEMEN,—I have the honour to submit herewith a full statement of the result of the valuation, just completed, of the Assets and Liabilities of the Sovereign Life Assurance Company, up to or as of the 31st December, 1861.

"This investigation has been, on the present occasion, a work of considerable magnitude and labour, as the number of Policies actually in force exceeds 5,000, covering Assurances to over One Million Sterling, and embracing almost every class or description of Life Assurance.

"I am happy to be able to assure you that the condition of the Company is sound and prosperous, and holds out every prospect of increased success. The bonus, which the Directors may safely declare as the result of this valuation, is larger in amount, both as regards the shareholders and the assured, than that declared on any previous occasion; and this bonus has been fairly earned by the past operations of the Society, without in the smallest degree touching any portion of the future profits.

"The valuation has been made with the greatest care and exactness, and the reserve for the future is most ample for the purposes of safety, and quite sufficient, with care and management, to maintain hereafter a proportionately favourable rate of improvement.

"I have the honour to be,
"GENTLEMEN,
"Your very faithful servant,
(Signed) "PETER HARDY,
"Actuary."

"April, 1862."
It may be remembered, that on the declaration of the last Bonus the Actuary strongly urged the propriety of postponing the Actual Division of Profits until the alternate triennial valuation; the prudence of which course, though it naturally occasioned disappointment in some few instances, is now apparent; and it is most gratifying to the Board, while reviewing the peculiar difficulties which those alone who are actively engaged in the business of Life Assurance know to have existed during the last six years, to present so favourable a Report, especially as it emanates from a gentleman of such high character and professional standing as Mr. HARDY.

Without in the smallest degree encroaching on future profits the addition sanctioned by this investigation will give to each Share a Bonus of 4s. 6d. or 9 per cent. on the paid-up capital, being three times the sum allotted on the last occasion, and 75 per cent. of the divisible Surplus will be added to all Policyholders, assured at participating rates, on the 31st December last, in proportion to the premiums paid since the last Division.

The Circulars, announcing the allotment to individual Policies, will be issued as soon as practicable.

The Directors recommend that the usual Dividend of 5 per cent., free of Income-tax, be paid on the Capital for the half-year ending 31st December last.

The Directors retiring are LORD ARTHUR LENNOX; T. M. B. BATARD, Esq.; and JOHN GARDINER, Esq., who, being eligible, offer themselves for re-election.

(Signed) ARTHUR LENNOX, Chairman.

LONDON and LANCASHIRE FIRE and LIFE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

Fire Capital, £1,000,000. Life Capital, £100,000.
With Power to Increase.

CHIEF OFFICE—73 & 74, King William-street, London, E.C.
CHAIRMAN:—F. W. RUSSELL, Esq., M.P., Chairman of the National Discount Company, London.

DEPUTY CHAIRMEN.
Fire—Mr. Alderman DAKIN (Messrs. Dakin Brothers), London.
Life—J. H. MACKENZIE, Esq., Temple, London.

The two Companies are established under different deeds, and with separate capital; the advantage, therefore, of keeping the capital of each Company distinct is secured, whilst mutual benefit will be obtained by a unity of interest, and by the great saving of expense in consequence of the business of the two Companies being conducted in the same offices, and, as far as practicable, by the same management, and by the same machinery of agents.

Every description of Home and Foreign Fire and Life Insurance business transacted at Moderate Rates.

Foreign Residence and Travelling.—Liberal conditions. See Prospectus.

Loans Granted on Personal Security.

Bonuses Given to Fire Policy Holders.

Promptness and Liberality in the Settlement of Claims.

Commission allowed to Agents and others introducing business.

Applications for Agencies are requested.

WILLIAM PALIN CLEREHUGH,
General Manager and Actuary.